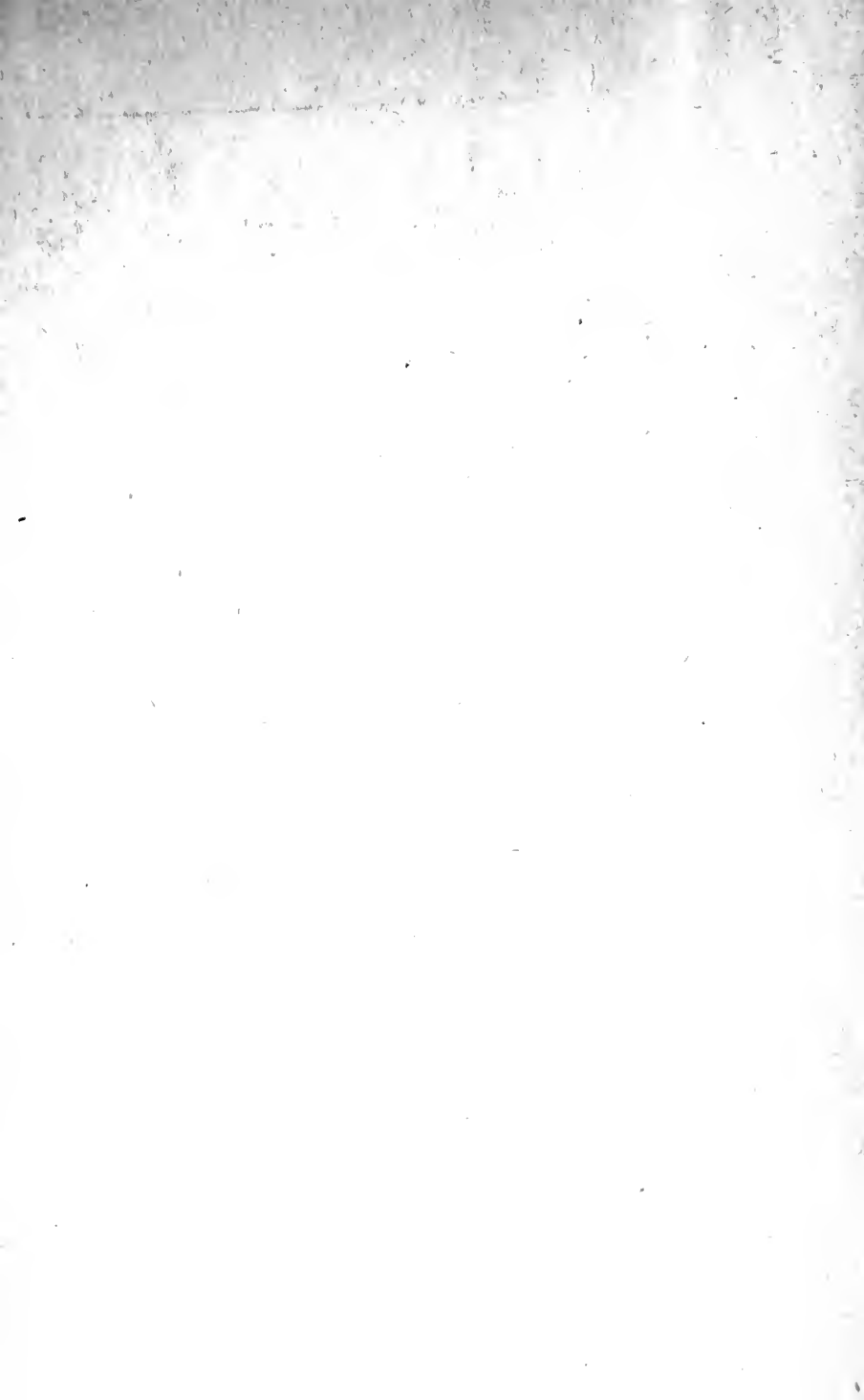
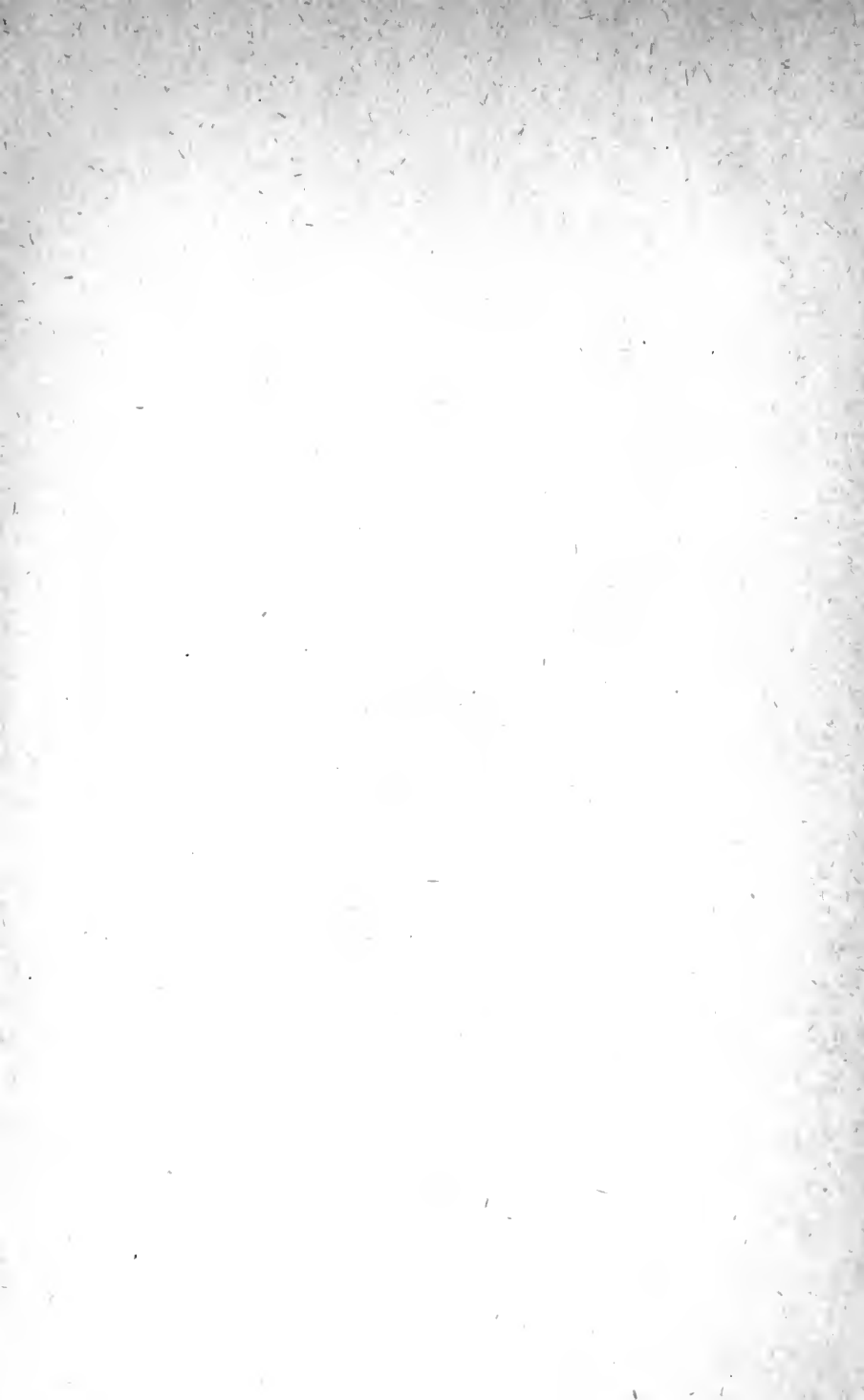


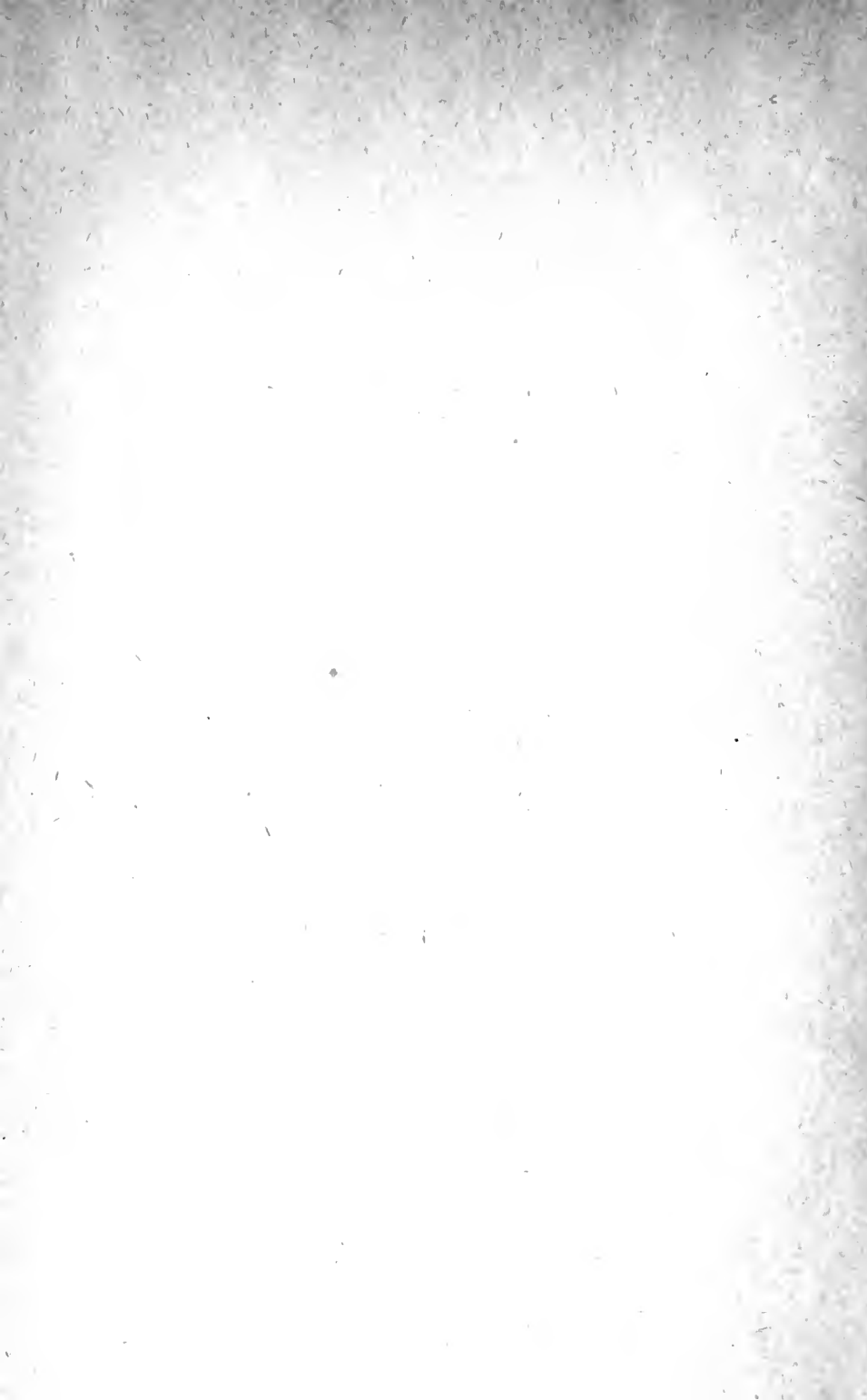
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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

Forty Seventh Annual Convention

OF THE

Ontario Educational Association

HELD IN

TORONTO

On the 21st, 22nd and 23rd April, 1908.



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TORONTO:
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1908.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

Forty-Seventh Annual Convention

OF THE

Ontario Educational Association.

MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

TUESDAY, April 21st, 1908.

The Association met in Convocation Hall, University of Toronto at 8 p.m., the President, L. E. Embree, LL.D., in the chair.

Rev. Professor Ballantyne conducted the opening exercises by reading 1 Thessalonians, chap. 5, and by leading in prayer.

On motion of Principal Scott, seconded by Professor Hume, the minutes of the last annual meeting having been printed and distributed were taken as read and confirmed.

Communications were read from :

1. The West Huron Teachers' Association *re* the Public School Leaving Examination, examinations in History, Drawing Physiology, and an increase in the number of Trustees, etc.

2. The Women's Christian Temperance Union, Alliston, *re* Scientific Temperance Instruction in Public Schools.

3. The Women's Christian Temperance Union, Hamilton, *re* Temperance Instruction.

Moved by Mr. R. Alexander, seconded by Mr. J. Suddaby, that the communications just read be referred to a Committee to be appointed by the President, to report at a future session. Carried.

The Secretary read a report from the Board of Directors which stated that a General Section of this Association had been formed, to be called the Continuation Section.

On motion of Mr. W. Scott, seconded by Mr. T. E. Langford, the report was received.

Hon. B. A. Pyne addressed the Association. (See page 103.)

President Embree gave an address on "Some Tendencies in Education." (See page 91.)

R. A. Falconer, LL.D., President of the University of Toronto, addressed the Convention. (See page 106.)

After the close of Dr. Falconer's address an informal reception of the members of the Association was held by the President of the University.

The Association adjourned at 11 p.m.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

A joint meeting of all the Departments and Sections was held in Convocation Hall at 4 o'clock p.m., President Embree in the chair.

James P. Haney, M.D., of New York, addressed the meeting on "Manual Training." (See page 112.)

At 8 o'clock p.m., the Association met in Convocation Hall, President Embree in the chair.

Rev. Dr. O'Meara conducted the devotional exercises by reading a portion of Scripture and by leading in prayer.

A letter was read from the Canadian Hospital Association in reference to the prevention of tuberculosis.

This letter was referred to the Board of Directors with instructions to report upon the subject at next meeting of the Association.

The Treasurer's report was presented and received and referred to the Auditors. (See page 90.)

A report from the English and History Section was presented, as follows:

That, whereas, by a Resolution of the Historical Section, O. E. A., 1906, the undersigned were appointed to report upon a proposal which had been suggested by Mr. Alexander Fraser, Provincial Archivist, before the Section, viz.: That the appointment by the Dominion Government of a Royal Commission in which

should be vested the property in the historie battelfields, forts buildings, monuments, sites, etc., of Canada, in order that they should be properly cared for and preserved, would be in the public interest, and

Whereas, at the meeting of the English and History Section, O. E. A., last year, the Committee reported progress, and was instructed to continue its enquiries and to report to the meeting of the Section this year:

Therefore, your Committee begs to report:

1. That it has carefully considered the existing condition of many of the battlefields, historic sites, monuments, forts, etc., associated with the history of Canada, and find instances of encroachment, neglect, threatened abandonment, desecration, and destruction, which unless arrested, place in danger objects of inestimable historical value.

2. That there is a decided and genuine awakening of public interest in the history, and in the historical manuments of the country, as is evidenced by the opinions expressed in the public press; and particularly in the response to the appeal for funds recently made on behalf of the battlefields at the City of Quebec.

3. That, in the opinion of your Committee the Dominion Government should be urged by the O. E. A. to appoint a Royal Commission in perpetuity with power under Statute to acquire such battlefields, places of historical interest, Indian sites, forts, buildings, residences, monuments, etc., as may be desired worthy of preservation for historical and national purposes, and that such acquisitions be restored, preserved, and worthily maintained at the public expense.

4. That your Committee recognizes in the appointment of the National Battlefields Commission, a suitable beginning of this public duty, and recommends that the O.E.A. should petition the Dominion Government in favour of the immediate extension of the scope of said Commission in order that its operations should include the acquisition of all the historical battlefields, etc., as above set forth; or as an alternative, that a Royal Commission should be appointed with such general powers.

5. Your Committee commends the effort now being put forth by the National Battlefields Commission to the most favorable

consideration of the O. E. A., and trust its full influence may be enlisted on behalf of the great work the Commission has undertaken.

Respectfully submitted,

J. S. CARSTAIRS,
GEORGE M. WRONG,
ALEXANDER FRASER,
W. S. MILNER.

On motion of E. W. Hagarty, B.A., seconded by S. B. Sinclair, Ph.D., the report was adopted.

The following report from the Inspectors' Department was presented :

Your Committee, appointed to consider the question of the introduction in the Schools of the selected Scripture Readings of the International Bible Reading Association for use in connection with the opening Religious exercises, approve of their use, and recommend that the Department of Education be requested to furnish copies of these readings to all the Schools, either printed in the School Register or in a form that can be pasted in the Register or Bible, as is done in many of the Public Schools. Carried.

The report was adopted on motion of W. F. Chapman, B.A., seconded by Mr. J. H. Knight.

The Special Committee on the communication from the West Huron Teachers' Association and from the Hamilton and Alliston Women's Christian Associations, reported as follows :

Your Committee on the resolutions presented to the General Association last evening, by the West Huron Teachers' Association and by the Hamilton and Alliston Women's Christian Unions, beg to report as follows :

1. With reference to restoring the Public School Leaving Examinations, and examinations on each of the subjects; History, Drawing and Physiology, including Scientific Temperance; the Committee is of the opinion that the changes in the regulations affecting the Public School Leaving Examination and the subjects not on the examination list, having been but recently made, the present system should be allowed further trial. If the present system

is found to lead to the neglect of subjects not on the examination list, the remedy would appear to be, not in restoring the examinations, but in more diligent and effective supervision and inspection.

2. That the question, whether it is desirable to increase the number of rural School Trustees from three to six, two to be elected annually, be referred to the Trustees' Department.

3. That in the opinion of the Committee, the matter of establishing township conventions of trustees, teachers and ratepayers is entirely within the scope and jurisdiction of the County Associations.

4. In view of the announced policy of the Government in respect of Model Schools, we deem it to be inexpedient to open the question.

5. As to the resolution of Entrance Literature we would also recommend no change at present.

R. ALEXANDER, *Chairman*.

D. YOUNG, *Secretary*.

On motion of Mr. R. Alexander, seconded by F. W. Merchant, M.A., the report was adopted.

Mr. J. H. Putman presented a report from the Committee on Superannuation, as follows:

REPORT OF THE SUPERANNUATION COMMITTEE.

Your Committee appointed at the last meeting of the O. E. A. beg to report as follows:

1. That the Government of the Province has inserted \$1,000.00 in the "Estimates" for the year 1908, to be used in investigating the scheme of superannuation which your Committee submitted to it two years ago.

2. That in the opinion of your Committee nothing more can be done to further a scheme of superannuation until the expert actuary to whom the present proposals will, no doubt, be submitted, reports to the Government.

3. And that your Committee would suggest the reappointment of a Superannuation Committee to keep the matter before the Government, this Committee, as far as possible to be representative of all departments of the O. E. A., and, in particular, that there

should be representatives of the women-teachers upon it, so that every interest, so far as human wisdom can foresee, may be conserved.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

(Signed) Wm. Scott, *Secretary*.

Mr. Putman moved, seconded by Mr J. H. Knight, that the report be received and adopted and that the President nominate a Committee on Superannuation, the names of the members composing the Committee to be announced on Thursday evening. Carried.

Mr. C. G. Fraser gave notice of the following motion:—That it be an instruction to the incoming Committee on Superannuation to ask the Government to provide a Superannuation Scheme supported wholly by the Government for the support of the teachers of the Province.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

President W. H. Ballard, M.A., Hamilton.

General Secretary.....R. W. Doan, Toronto.

Treasurer..... W. J. Hendry, Toronto.

It was agreed:

1. To consider Mr. Hagarty's paper on Promotions and to receive the report on the Teachers' Alliance on Thursday evening.

The Association adjourned.

THURSDAY, April 23rd.

The meeting was opened in Convocation Hall at 8 p.m.

President Embree in the chair.

Rev. Dr. Crummy conducted devotional exercises.

The Secretary read the following report from the Inspectors' Department.

The following resolutions were adopted by the Inspectors' Department and they are herewith forwarded for consideration by the General Association:

1. That for the present we are not in favor of the proposal made in certain quarters that the Entrance Examination should be abolished and replaced by the recommendations of teachers.

The following are some of our reasons for this position: (1) The inexperience and lack of judgment of many teachers. (2) The frequent changes of teachers. (3) The impossibility of making the proposed plan apply equitably to all schools. (4) The probability of its leading to undue interference on the part of parents.

II. *Re* The Ontario Teachers' Alliance: That we approve of the general principles of this organization as laid down in their Draft Constitution, a copy of which has been submitted to us.

The report was received and laid on the table for further consideration during the evening, after the discussion on the general question of examinations.

President Embree announced the names of the Committee on Superannuation: Messrs. N. Burwash, J. Dearness, J. R. Stuart, William Scott, J. H. Putman, L. E. Embree, R. A. Gray, L. K. Murton, W. S. Ellis, W. H. Ballard, D. Young, S. Acheson, J. Bennett, J. Ball Dow, G. K. Powell, R. Alexander, Misses L. A. Carruthers, H. Johnston.

The Secretary read the report of the Auditors and moved its reception and adoption.

Dr. Sinclair seconded the motion, which was carried.

Mr. James L. Hughes, Chief Inspector of Schools for Toronto, addressed the Association on "European Schools." (See page 121.)

Moved by Mr. J. Suddaby, seconded by Mr. E. W. Hagarty, that the thanks of the Association are due and are hereby tendered to Mr. Hughes for his very able and interesting address. Carried.

Mr. Fitzpatrick addressed the meeting on "Camp Schools."

E. W. Hagarty, B.A., introduced the subject of graduation of pupils from High Schools and from Public Schools by reading a paper containing several propositions on the subject. (See page 141.)

The first two clauses were adopted and it was ordered that the paper be printed in the Proceedings of the Association.

Mr. E. T. Young read the following report on the Teachers' Alliance:

With the close of the first year of organized effort, the Ontario Teachers' Alliance may review its record with a feeling of pride and gratification. A year ago, the movement was in the air,—to-day, it has crystallized into a distinct organization with definite aims, high hopes, firm resolve and a measure of experience which points the way to success.

The initial membership of about seventy-five has been increased more than five-fold, a general interest has been aroused among the educators of the Province and communities outside the teaching profession have been made to take notice that teachers are organizing.

The work of construction is necessarily slow in all organizations presenting a complexity of relations and interests. The Alliance is just such an organization. The executive has spent the year in drafting a constitution which, while not complete, affords a basis for immediate action and possesses an elasticity which will permit of rapid adjustment to new conditions.

The organization of the Province has been carried on incidentally, but this department of our work has been crippled through the lack of some definite proposition to lay before the teachers at large. Those who have attached themselves to the Alliance have done so by faith. In spite of this drawback, vigorous branch associations have been organized in Guelph, and in the inspectorates of West Kent, North Ontario, East Simcoe, South York and Waterloo, while in many other communities the teachers are deeply interested in considering the claims of the Alliance.

It is with no small degree of pride that we record the fact that two of our women fellow-members have received such assistance from the Alliance as enabled them to win out their differences with their trustees.

The outlook for the Alliance is bright. It operates in an undeveloped field which will yield handsome returns. The great body of educators in Ontario, possessing almost unlimited potential power, is at present a giant unaware of his strength. The Alliance wishes by organization to give this giant, aim, initiative and impact. It seeks to inspire the individual teacher and the whole body of educators with a wholesome, professional self-respect,—a quality in which we are sadly lacking. This may seem a harsh statement but we cannot afford to live in a fools' paradise. Let us awake to the hard fact that the community estimates us largely at our own rating. If the Alliance aimed at nothing more than to instil a rational self-respect into the profession, this would be a sufficient apology for its existence.

It seems like a glimpse into Utopia to look forward to the day when the educators of Ontario shall have members of their profession elected to the Legislature and to Boards of Education on

equal terms with the other members; when the voice of the Alliance shall have weight both in Legislation and Administration; when the expert opinion of the executive of the Alliance shall be cordially sought by Boards of Education and by teachers. But these things have been attained in England and New Zealand. In the former country, three members of the National Union of Teachers are members of the House of Commons, one of them, Hon. Mr. McNamara, being in the present Government; the executive of the N.U.T. is frequently requested to assist in adjusting the differences that arise between teachers and trustees, and some of the members of the Mosely Commission, which recently visited our schools, were not only principals of their respective schools but also members of their schools boards.

It is for the realization of such projects as these that we ask your co-operation. What organization has done, can again be done through organization. We urge all educators to carefully consider the claims of the Alliance and we will gracefully accept the verdict of the profession.

The report was received and ordered to be printed in the Proceedings.

Moved by Mr. J. Suddaby, seconded by Mr. H. Ward, that the thanks of this Association are due and are hereby tendered to the retiring President for the courteous and efficient manner in which he has discharged his duties as President of this Association during the year. Carried.

Moved by Mr. H. Gray, seconded by Mr. S. Acheson, that the thanks of the Association be tendered to the University authorities for the use of the University buildings during the present session.

After the singing of the National Anthem the President declared the meeting adjourned.

MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

April 23rd.

The Department met in West Hall, University Building, at 9.30 a.m., the Chairman, Mr. J. Davison, B.A., Principal of Guelph Collegiate Institute, presiding.

By motion, the minutes of the previous annual meeting as printed in the Proceedings of the O. E. A. were accepted as read and were approved.

Principal Hutton gave notice of motion calling for three languages for matriculation and the removal of Science from the list of optional subjects for matriculation.

HIGH SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN THE UNIVERSITY SENATE.

Messrs Embree, Mayberry and Hagarty reported as to the proceedings in the University Senate relating to High School affairs. The work accomplished this year was outlined as follows:

1. The matriculation standard was raised to 40 per cent., this to take effect after 1908.

2. Beginning with 1908, the percentage required for passing is to be exacted *on each paper*, not on each group of papers representing a subject.

3. After a lapse of some three or four years, the confidential reports of Principals and staffs regarding candidates for matriculation are again to be consulted and carefully considered before rejection of a candidate.

Mr. Mayberry moved, seconded by Mr. Hagarty, "That in the opinion of this Department, the High School representatives in the Senate should have a voice at all conferences and committees relating to matriculation." Carried.

CHAIRMAN'S ADDRESS.

Mr. Davison, the Chairman of the Department, then read his address. The chief points of the address were as follows:

1. The writer favored matriculation by examination, not by recommendation.

2. Arithmetic and Grammar should be examination subjects.

3. The "credit" system of the United States was amusingly illustrated.

4. Matriculation by instalments (or "partial" matriculation) was condemned.

5. The September supplementals should be abolished.

6. Matriculation to the Faculty of Applied Science and Engineering should involve Honor Mathematics and Science with a 40 per cent. standard.

7. Pass Physics for matriculation should be as difficult and comprehensive as for entrance to the Normal Schools.

Consideration of this address was left over till the afternoon.

DR. PAKENHAM'S ADDRESS.

Joint meeting of the Trustees' Department and the College and High School Department.

Mr. L. K. Murton, B.A., of Oshawa, Chairman of the Trustees' Department, in the chair.

Dr. Pakenham, Dean of the Faculty of Education, University of Toronto, and Vice-Chairman of the College and High School Department, read an address entitled "The High School, Its Place and Importance in the Educational System."

The speaker, by carefully prepared statistics, showed the fallacy of the contention that the secondary schools are not doing their fair share of education. On the basis of their attendance, they are entitled to a larger portion of public money than they now receive. They form character in the very important period of adolescence, they give intellectual and aesthetic culture, provide for physical development, and train for a great variety of practical pursuits. Their course is flexible and they aid the pupil in the *selection* of life work. Nevertheless, they are not "rampantly utilitarian," but "cherish a fine vein of idealism," and "stand for culture."

On motion of Rev. Mr. Wilson, seconded by Mr. Steele, the paper was ordered to be printed in the proceedings and a hearty vote of thanks was tendered the speaker.

The Department adjourned at noon.

ELECTION OF OFFICERS.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:—

<i>Chairman</i>	W. Pakenham, M.A., D. Paed.
<i>Vice-Chairman</i>	L. A. Smith, M.A.
<i>Secretary</i>	R. A. Gray, B.A., Toronto.

Councillors representing Sections, H. J. Crawford, Classics.

T. J. Ivey, Natural Science.

G. H. Needler, Modern Languages.

W. Prendergast, English and History.

W. Ward, Commercial.

R. Wightman, Mathematics.

Directors, O. E. A. H. J. Crawford, T. J. Ivey, G. Needler, W. Ward.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Department re-assembled at 2 p.m.

Communications were received as follows:—From the Natural Science Section protesting against the proposal to remove science from the list of subjects for pass matriculation and giving several reasons in opposition to the proposal; from the same Section concurring in the movement for greater unity among the Sections of the Department and suggesting the addition of Wednesday afternoon to the time set apart for the meetings of the Department; from the Modern Language Section favoring greater unity, and suggesting Tuesday afternoon for joint meetings of the Sections.

THE ADVISORY COUNCIL.

Messrs. Martin and Kirkconnell, H. S. Representatives on the Advisory Council, commented on the work of the Council, characterizing it as rather vague and almost entirely confidential. Text-books had been dealt with this year, though no recommendations or selections had been made. The appointment of examiners had been dealt with in strict fairness and with an eye solely to efficiency.

“AGRICULTURE IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS.”

Mr. C. C. James, M.A., Deputy Minister of Agriculture, read a paper outlining the history of the attempts so far made to teach Agriculture in Ontario, and describing specially the recent developments in introducing the subject into High Schools. The

plan was to send out specially trained men to take charge of the work, not only as teachers, but as agents of the Government in stirring up an interest in scientific farming. Specialists trained in the Ontario Agricultural College were detailed according to the varying capabilities of the different localities. For example, a specialist in fruit-growing was sent to Essex, and one in live-stock to Lindsay. The Department of Agriculture is working in harmony with that of Education, and in all six High School centres have been equipped, namely, Morrisburg, Perth, Lindsay, Galt, Collingwood and Essex. At each place an office is maintained by the Department of Agriculture for the purpose of interesting the farming class and securing pupils. It is the aim to extend the movement to all the rural High Schools of the Province.

A short discussion in sympathy with the paper took place and a vote of thanks was tendered the speaker, on motion of Messrs. Mayberry and Strong.

PRINCIPAL HUTTON'S MOTION *re* THREE LANGUAGES FOR MATRICULATION.

Principal Hutton moved, "That in the judgment of the College and High School Department the Science option for Matriculation should be removed and the only option should be two of the three languages, Greek, French and German."

Mr. A. P. Gundry, of Clinton, strongly opposed the motion, which was withdrawn in favor of one recommending that the University Senate do nothing in the matter until the teachers were consulted. This was agreed to.

The question of greater unity among the Sections of the Department was, on motion of the Secretary, referred to the Executive Committee for such action as it may deem proper.

PRESENTATION TO MR. HODGSON.

On behalf of the committee appointed last year Mr. Strang then called upon Mr. J. E. Hodgson, formerly High School Inspector, and presented him with a handsomely engrossed and bound address, signed by nearly every High School teacher in the province and expressing the admiration and esteem felt by

the teachers for Mr. Hodgson's work as inspector. Mr. Martin and several others spoke in support, dwelling upon the quiet sympathy and courtesy always shown the teachers by Mr. Hodgson. Mr. Hodgson made a feeling reply.

MATRICULATION AND H. S. ENTRANCE.

Moved by Mr. Hagarty, seconded by Mr. Martin, "That we favor the examination method of matriculating students and admitting pupils to the High School, and urge the restoration of Arithmetic and English Grammar to the examination list for matriculation and admission to the Normal Schools." Carried unanimously.

Moved by Dr. Embree, seconded by Mr. Mayberry, "That at matriculation a candidate shall be rejected if, after reference to the confidential report of the Principal and staff, he fail on more than one paper." Carried unanimously.

On motion of Mr. Henderson a vote of thanks was tendered the retiring Chairman.

The Department then adjourned.

E. W. HAGARTY, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

TUESDAY, April 21st.

The session opened at 10 a.m., in Room 9, University College, the President, Mr. J. N. Dales, in the chair.

The President gave an address on "The Teaching of Modern Languages in England," and Mr. St. Elme de Champ one in French on Esperanto.

At the afternoon session the following papers were read:—"Canadian Prose Writers," by Mr. Lawrence J. Burpee, librarian of the Carnegie Library, Ottawa; "Recent Canadian Poetry," by Professor Pelham Edgar, of Victoria College, Toronto; "Some Recent Contributions to the Study of Romance Literature," by Dr. M. A. Buchanan, of University College, Toronto.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

At the morning session Mr. G. S. Bale, of the Collegiate Institute, Kingston, read a paper on "A Canadian's Experience in Summer Schools in Europe," and Prof. L. E. Horning, of Victoria College, gave an address on "German Schools."

The Auditors, Messrs. A. E. Lang and G. S. Bale, reported that they found the Treasurer's books correct.

In the afternoon session in the Biological Building Prof. N. C. James, of Western University, London, gave an address on the subject "Are Our Methods of Language Study Satisfactory?"; Miss Alice Willson, B.A., of Jameson Avenue Collegiate Institute, read a paper on "Phonetics: Some Practical Suggestions;" Mr. W. C. Ferguson, of Riverdale High School, read a paper on "Methods and the Text-Book;" and Prof. J. H. Cameron, of University College, gave an address, accompanied by lantern illustrations, on "Assisi."

[The lecture began with a short account of the general situation of the town, a few facts in its early history, and a rapid outline of the life and work of St. Francis, to whom the place owes a great part of its interest. By means of lantern-slides, and of post-cards reflected through the epidiascope, were shown the peculiar situation of the town; the remarkable preservation of its mediæval features, and of beautiful pieces of architecture, such as the famous temple of Minerva, and the great basilica of San Francesco, dating from the early years of the fifteenth century; and lastly, some of the most striking objects of the neighborhood, the hermitage of the Carcere, and the great church covering the little Porziuncula in the valley.]

The officers elected for the coming year are:—

<i>President</i>	Pelham Edgar, Ph.D., Toronto.
<i>Vice-President</i>	W. C. Ferguson, B.A., Toronto.
<i>Sec.-Treas.</i>	G. H. Needler, Ph.D., Toronto.
<i>Councillors</i>	G. S. Bale, B.A., Kingston.
	J. N. Dales, M.A., Toronto.
	E. S. Hogarth, B.A., Hamilton.
	Miss A. E. Marty, B.A., Ottawa.
	Miss L. H. Tompkins, B.A., Chesley.
	J. F. VanEvery, B.A., Owen Sound.

The President nominated Prof. L. E. Horning, Mr. W. C. Ferguson and Mr. E. S. Hogarth as a committee to represent the Modern Language Section at a conference to be called by the Minister of Education to consider the question of text-books.

MINUTES OF THE NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.

TUESDAY, April 21st.

The meeting was held in the Biological Building.

The Section was called to order by the President, Mr. A. Cosens.

The minutes of the previous meeting and Treasurer's statement were read and confirmed, and communications from Mrs. W. H. Jenkins, the American Nature Study Society, and the American Federation of Teachers read.

Mr. J. H. Sexton was appointed Press Reporter.

The following resolution from the College and High School Department was then read:—

“Resolved that in the opinion of this conference of the Executives of the Sections of the College and High School Department, greater unity of action should prevail in all that relates to Secondary Education in this Province, and it is hereby recommended that the Sections discuss at the next Easter meeting the best methods for obtaining that end and report at the meeting of the College and High School Department on the afternoon of Thursday, April 23rd.”

After discussion, a committee consisting of Mr. Cosens, Mr. Cornish and the Secretary was appointed to prepare a report on this, to be brought before the Section the following day.

The President's address, on “Galls and Their Producers,” was then given, and after discussion by Dr. Faull, Mr. D. A. Campbell and others, was ordered to be printed in the Proceedings of the Association.

In the absence of Prof. Ramsay Wright in Europe, his address, to illustrate the use of the epidiascope, was given by Dr. B. A. Bensley.

The meeting adjourned at 5 p.m.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

The meeting was called to order at 9.30 a.m.

The committee appointed the previous day presented the following resolution which was adopted and ordered to be forwarded to the Secretary of the College and High School Department:—

“That in the opinion of this Section there should be a more united interest amongst the various Sections of the College and High School Department, and that therefore it would seem advisable that these Sections should be brought together on Wednesday afternoon as well as on Thursday, and that the programme should be of such general practical interest, as in itself to attract a large attendance from these Sections.”

The report of the Science text-book committee was then read by Mr. Turner, who explained that a copy of this report had already been sent to the Minister of Education.

A letter from the Minister of Education was also presented, asking that a committee be appointed to confer with him in the matter of text-books, etc., and also a letter from the High School Representatives on the Educational Council, asking for suggestions for outlines of Courses of Study for Entrance to Normal Schools and Faculties of Education, also for recommendations as to amendments to the Regulations of the Education Department.

The former committee, consisting of Mr. Turner, Mr. McCready, and the Secretary was re-appointed to confer with the Education Department on these matters.

Also as a result of the discussion on the letter received from the Representatives on the Educational Council, the following resolution was carried:—

“That in the opinion of this Section, the work required in Lower and Middle School Science is too great in amount and should be reduced by 30%.”

A statement was then made by Mr. Turner, and confirmed by Mr. Ellis, to the effect that there was a proposal to be brought before the University Senate to drop the Science option from the Pass Matriculation Course, and to substitute therefor a Modern Language.

After brief discussion it was moved that a committee be appointed to at once draft a resolution, to be brought before the Section. This was done, and the committee consisting of Mr.

Turner, Mr. Gundry, Mr. Fletcher and the Secretary presented the following resolution which was adopted:—

“The Natural Science Section of the Ontario Educational Association, having learned from a reliable source, that the Senate of Toronto University contemplate the removal of Elementary Science from the Pass Matriculation Course and the substitution therefor of a Modern Language, hereby expresses its unqualified disapproval of such action, for the following reasons:—

(1) The proposed change would result in the elimination of Science from the Course of Study for Matriculation and deprive the great majority of University students of a proper acquaintance of the world of which they form a part.

(2) It would make the Honour Matriculation Course in Science in our schools an impossibility.

(3) It would convey to the general public the impression that the Provincial University did not consider the subject of Science of sufficient importance to require the continuance of its study in our High Schools.

(4) It would force all bright candidates into other departments.

(5) Some of the smaller High Schools at least would have to undertake the work of an additional option in the Languages, or give up matriculation work altogether.

It was decided that copies of this report be forwarded to the University Senate, the President of the University and the College and High School Department; that the Executive of this Section be present at the meeting of the College and High School Department to discuss this point if necessary; and that they also undertake to see that the High School Representatives on the Senate be interviewed.

On account of lack of time, the next subject on the programme, “Discussion by L. H. Graham,” was omitted.

Prof. W. T. MacClement, of Queen’s University, then read a very interesting paper on “Methods in Evolution.” This paper was ordered to be printed in the Proceedings of the Association.

The following officers for the ensuing year were then elected:—

Honorary President.....Prof. W. T. MacClement, Kingston.
President.....G. A. Cornish, B.A., Lindsay.

<i>Vice-President</i>	L. H. Graham, B.A., E. Toronto.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer and Representative on the College and H. S. Dept.</i>	T. J. Ivey, M.A., Toronto.
<i>Councillors</i>	E. Morrison, A. P. Gundry, E. Pugsley, W. Donaldson and G. A. Carefoot.

The meeting then adjourned.

At 2 p.m. the Section assembled in the lecture room of the Physics Building, along with the Mathematical and Physical Section, where a very interesting address on "Recent Advances in Physics" was given by Dr. J. C. McLennan.

At 4 p.m. the members present adjourned to Convocation Hall, to a joint meeting of all Sections, which was addressed by Mr. J. P. Haney, on "The Manual Arts."

This closed the meeting for the session.

T. J. IVEY, *Secretary*.

THE MINUTES OF THE CLASSICAL SECTION.

TUESDAY, April 21st.

The Classical Section met in Room 2, University College, at 2 p.m., with President H. J. Crawford in the chair. On motion the minutes were accepted as printed. In his address the President referred to many matters of interest to the schoolmaster; to the value of intelligent reading of Latin or Greek text as a preparation for the subsequent lesson, and to the bearing of a Classical vocabulary on the pupil's English Literature.

On the subject "Changes in the Curriculum for Matriculation," short talks were given by Messrs. Hagarty, Michell, Calling and Prof. Robertson, who dealt with the subject from various points of view, and explained the origin of the changes and the goal aimed at. Prof. Robertson outlined the entire curriculum and showed its relation to the curriculum of the University.

The following officers for the coming year were elected :—

<i>Honorary President</i>	H. W. Auden.
<i>President</i>	C. A. Mayberry.
<i>Vice-President</i>	G. W. Johnston.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	D. A. Glassey, Harbord Coll. Inst., Toronto.
<i>Councillors</i>	W. C. Michell, Jas. Colling, H. R. H. Kenner.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

10.00 a.m. The Section met with a crowded room to listen to entertaining and instructive addresses by President Falconer, who gave an account of his "Ramble Through Greece," and Rev. Eber Crummy, who spoke on "The Ethical Value of Classics" (*vide* page 206).

In the afternoon the Section listened with pleasure to William Dale, M.A., sometime Professor of Latin in University College, who spoke on "Virgil, the National Poet of Rome," and Rev. Canon Cody, whose subject was "The Classics as a Preparation for the Clerical Calling." The members were denied the pleasure of hearing Prof. John MacNaughton on the subject "Past and Present in Education."

The Secretary reported that the Registrar of the Educational Council had informed him that care had been taken in setting the paper in Latin Prose Composition for Senior Leaving Candidates to prevent the candidates suffering any harm, whether Cicero or Caesar had been made the basis of his teaching in that subject.

In response to a request from the Minister of Education, Principal Hutton, Messrs. H. J. Crawford and F. C. Colbeck were appointed a committee to consult with the Minister on the subject of text-books.

D. A. GLASSEY, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

TUESDAY, April 21st.

At about 2.30 p.m. the annual meeting of the Section was opened with a goodly number present.

The minutes of previous meetings being called for, it was moved, seconded and carried that, as the minutes had been printed in the proceedings, they be taken as read.

A communication from the Honorable the Minister of Education was read, requesting that the Section appoint three of its members to act at any conference that he should arrange to discuss the matter of text-books. It was moved by Mr. Fessenden, seconded by Mr. McDougal, that the Chairman, Mr. C. L. Crassweller, and two others whom he might appoint should represent the Section in this matter. Carried. Further discussion on the subject was deferred until Wednesday morning.

Mr. W. W. Nichol was appointed Press Reporter for the meetings of the Section.

The President, Mr. C. L. Crassweller, then gave his address, "Some Tendencies in Mathematical Teaching." The paper was full of suggestions and was listened to with interest.

The "Problem" paper of 1907 was then reviewed by Mr. G. H. Hogarth in a very thorough and lucid manner. The review led to a good deal of discussion concerning the use and character of the problem paper. Time pressing, further discussion was deferred till next morning.

Mr. J. G. Taylor then indicated the marking of the different answers to the questions on the Junior Teachers' Geometry of 1907.

The meeting adjourned until Wednesday morning.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

Owing to additional registration taking place it was after ten o'clock before the programme for the day was started.

Further discussion *re* text-books was invited, but none forthcoming, the President read a letter from Prof. DeLury, offering some suggestions on the subject. A good deal of discussion fol-

lowed, resulting in the following resolution:—Moved by Mr. Wilson Taylor, seconded by Mr. T. Kennedy, "That the Honor standing of candidates for Matriculation, whether for scholarship or not, be based upon the three papers on Algebra, Geometry and Trigonometry, and that the 'problem' paper be regarded merely in determining the rank for scholarship standing." Carried.

A letter from the H. S. Representatives on the Advisory Council was read asking that the Section make suggestions as to changes that might be advisable in the Courses of Study prescribed for Entrance to Normal Schools and the Faculties of Education, and as to amendments that might be made in the Regulations of the Education Department. The members of the Section not having considered the matter, it was resolved that as both representatives were members of the Section, we might safely leave the matter in their hands.

The discussion of the Examination papers of preceding year was then continued by Mr. Simpson giving a very comprehensive review of the answers presented and the marks awarded in connection with the Junior Matriculation Geometry. Like those that preceded and those which followed, this review contained much that would be helpful to young teachers, especially to those who have not had the chance to act as associate examiners in the different subjects.

Mr. T. Kennedy then treated the Junior Matriculation Algebra in much the same way, any questions being asked, or discussion taking place as the several questions of the paper were reviewed.

In dealing with the Senior Teachers' Geometry, Mr. J. W. O'Dell seized the opportunity to point out several defects in the character of the paper, the chief being that it was a mixture of synthetic and analytic Geometry and consequently the answers and proofs offered by the candidates were similarly mixed.

Then followed the election of officers, resulting as follows:—

<i>Honorary President</i>	J. C. McLennan, Ph.D.
<i>President</i>	Wilson Taylor, B.A.
<i>Vice-President</i>	J. D. Dickson, B.A.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	T. Kennedy, M.A., Harbord Street C. I., Toronto.

The meeting then adjourned to meet at 2 p.m. with the Natural Science Section to hear Dr. McLennan's address on

"Recent Advances in Physics," and later to hear Mr. James P. Haney address all departments and sections on "The Manual Arts."

R. WIGHTMAN, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION.

TUESDAY, April 21st.

The first session of the second annual meeting of the English and History Section of the College and High School Department of the Ontario Educational Association opened at 9.30 a.m. in Room 10, University College. The President, Mr. M. W. Wallace, Ph.D., occupied the chair.

On motion of Mr. A. MacVicar, seconded by Professor Alexander, the minutes as printed in the "Proceedings" for 1907 were taken as read and approved.

The President's address on "Milton and Religious Toleration" was then delivered to an audience that taxed the capacity of the room, and from both the literary and the historical points of view was intensely interesting.

A paper on "Examinations in English in Secondary Schools" was given by Dr. H. T. J. Coleman, of the Faculty of Education, Toronto University. He approved, in general, of the system prevailing in the United States of grading on daily work rather than the Canadian plan of trying to assign exact percentages on final examinations. Both sides of the question were strongly presented in the lively debate that followed.

AFTERNOON.

At 2 p.m. the Section re-assembled and Dr. C. F. Lavell, Dean of the Faculty of Education of Queen's University, read a paper on "Mediæval History in the High Schools." This work has been taken up for some time in the Secondary Schools of the United States and Europe and Dr. Lavell said he was watching with interest the outcome of the experiment of introducing it into the Secondary Schools of Ontario. In his opinion, owing to the

great extent of field, no attempt should be made to teach the subject from the point of view of political development. The general movements and the biographies of great military and religious leaders should be taught.

The appointing of a Nominating Committee was, by motion, left to the President and at the close of the session he named Professors Alexander, Milner, and O. J. Stevenson, and Mr. W. Prendergast, and requested that they meet Wednesday morning.

The report of the committee regarding the preservation of historical landmarks was presented by Mr. J. S. Carstairs. It was moved by Mr. Carstairs and seconded by Mr. Alexander Fraser, Provincial Archivist, that the report be received, adopted and forwarded to the College and High School Department with the request that it be transmitted to the General Association and that the committee consisting of Professors Wrong and Milner and Mr. Fraser and Mr. Carstairs, be continued for the ensuing year. The motion was carried.

A communication from Mr. E. W. Hagarty, Secretary of the College and High School Department, was received in which attention was called to the fact that the discussion of matters of general interest is really being left to the High School Principals' Department and advocating greater unity of action among the members of the College and High School Department. A committee, consisting of Mr. W. J. Robertson, Mr. W. Prendergast and Mr. J. Keillor, was appointed to consider the matter and report Wednesday morning.

The proceedings for the day were brought to a close by a very instructive paper on "The Study of Mediæval Literature," by Dr. W. H. Clawson, of the English Department, University College.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

The Section re-assembled at 10 a.m. The report of the Nominating Committee was received and adopted. The Executive for the ensuing year is as follows:—

President..... A. MacVicar, B.A., London.

Vice-President..... A. Stevenson, B.A., Kingston.

Sec.-Treas..... C. W. Horton, B.A., Bracondale, Toronto.

Director..... W. Prendergast, B.A., Toronto.
Councillors..... Miss J. Thomas, M.A., Toronto; Messrs. A. W. Burt, B.A., Brantford; I. M. Levan, B.A., Woodstock; L. J. Pettit, B.A., St. Thomas; and W. J. Sykes, B.A., Ottawa.

In response to a request from the Honorable the Minister of Education, Dr. R. A. Pyne, the three first mentioned in the list of officers, namely, Messrs. A. MacVicar, A. Stevenson and C. W. Horton, were appointed to confer with him regarding text-books and courses of study.

A communication from Mr. Barlow Cumberland regarding representation of the Ontario Historical Association on the programme was discussed but action was deferred.

Mr. W. J. Robertson presented the report of the Committee appointed to deal with the communication from the College and High School Department, and after considerable discussion it was decided, on motion of Professor Wrong and Mr. L. J. Pettit, to adhere to the Section's plan of providing a two days' programme.

The remainder of the forenoon was very profitably spent in a History Symposium regarding:

(a) The use of text-books, atlases and maps.

(b) The use of slides.

(c) The correlation of the secondary school work in English and History. The leaders in the discussion were: Miss E. J. Guest, M.A.; and Messrs. E. J. Kylie, B.A.; C. F. Lavell, Ph.D.; W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B.

AFTERNOON.

An address on "The Teaching of History in English Secondary Schools," by Mr. K. G. Feiling, B.A., called forth a splendid discussion, in which Professor George L. Fox of New Haven, Conn., who was a member of the famous "Committee of Seven" which drew up the report on History in the Secondary Schools of the United States, took a prominent part. He has visited English Schools many times and is an ardent admirer of their virility and thoroughness.

The paper by Mr. A. G. Brown, B.A., on "First Year History in University College," formed an appropriate close to a programme which was interesting, suggestive and helpful throughout.

A. MACVICAR, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE COMMERCIAL SECTION.

1908.

President.....F. W. Edward, Chatham.

Vice-President.....E. C. Srigley, Peterborough.

Secretary-Treasurer.....W. Baird, Toronto; T.H.S.

Councillors..... Miss K. McLellan, West Toronto; Miss V. Clayton, Cobourg; J. McNabb, Ottawa; J. A. Buchanan, London; G. D. Robertson, Stratford; D. M. Walker, Niagara; C. S. Webster, St. Thomas.

Representative to General

ExecutiveW. Ward, Toronto.

Commercial work in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes is growing with great rapidity, and it requires but a few years more at its present rate of progress to make it the greatest factor in the Secondary School education. That this fact is recognized, was shewn by the large attendance at the meetings of the Commercial Section, not only of Collegiate Institute Commercial Masters but also by the presence of many Public School teachers, High School Principals and Business College men.

The tendency of the Commercial Course at the present time is plainly in the direction of a three and even four years' course, the first year being the general course of the "Lower School," and the later years broadening out to fit the graduates not only for office positions as Stenographers and Book-keepers, but also for the greater and more important sphere of future commercial life.

W. Ward, B.A., President of the Section, occupied the chair throughout, and opened the meeting at 2.30 on Tuesday afternoon with a strong address on the status of commercial work, stating that there was at present a feeling of unrest among Commercial

Masters throughout the Province, evidenced by their engaging in work in addition to their school work either to increase their incomes or to obtain a higher academic standing. This unrest seems to point to a want of the commercial work to rank as equal to the other courses offered in schools for secondary education which results from a too narrow view of the Commercial Course or perhaps from the confusion of an office course with the broader Business Course.

Inasmuch as the present is a time of reconstruction in matters educational in the Province and as the Minister of Education has asked the Commercial Section to appoint a Committee of three to confer with him when called upon, regarding text books and course of study, this seems to be an opportune time for considering the whole question of the Commercial Course and the standing of the Commercial Specialists.

The Commercial Course is rapidly becoming a three years' course in the larger collegiates and should be broadened especially in the direction of Commercial Geography and History so as to lead up to a study of the elements of Economics and Civics and in Language to include more attention to English Literature with the addition, where possible, of French or German. More attention should be given to Algebra and an option of Freehand or Mechanical Drawing might be added.

Corresponding with this broadening of the Commercial Course there should be a change in the requirements for Commercial Specialist standing. The standard set being somewhat as follows:

1. A degree in Arts with honors in (a) Political Science or (b) Mathematics or (c) English.

2. Special training in Bookkeeping and Phonography as at present required. If the University could be induced to offer a course in Commerce leading to a degree, then such a degree would give the necessary standing.

E. C. Srigley, of Peterborough, then dealt with the subject of Writing, which evoked a good deal of discussion on form and method of teaching.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd, 1908.

W. E. Evans, of Galt, gave a paper on "The place of Mathematics in the Commercial Course." Among other things, he emphasized:

(1) Rapidity and accuracy in multiplication and division should be the first aim.

(2) Rapid calculation should be introduced at the very first and continued systematically throughout the course.

(3) Algebra should be one of the first year subjects.

(4) Problems should be practical.

This was followed by Wm. Baird, who discussed in a very practical manner "How to secure speed in Shorthand." He showed how a thorough mastery of the theory was the first requisite, and systematic practice the next. He also gave several methods of varying the work to prevent it from becoming monotonous to the students.

L. W. Taylor, of Guelph, closed the programme of the day with a very complete organization of what could be covered in Commercial Geography. He shewed that with the maze of material at one's disposal to choose from, the subject should be made one of the most interesting and instructive in the course. The plan of teaching would necessarily be topical and when a subject would have to be covered on which pupils could not easily obtain information, the lecture method could be employed by the teacher with good effect.

The topics that could be covered all grouped naturally under three headings:

(1) Commercial Geography, proper.

(2) Civics.

(3) History of Commerce

The Minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved.
Communications:

(1) From the Hon. R. A. Pyne, asking:

This Section to appoint three men to act at any conference, that he might arrange *re* text-books, or changes in course of study.

(2) From E. W. Hagarty, asking:

That the following resolution be discussed "That it is desirable that there should be greater unity of action among the Sections of the College and High School Department."

(3) From T. A. Kirkconnell and S. Martin asking for recommendations on:

(1) Qualifications for entrance to the Normal Schools.

(2) Amendments to the Regulations of the Education Department.

Re Communication 1:

On motion of Messrs. Ramsay and Lucas, W. Ward, T.H.S., Toronto; E. C. Srigley, Peterborough; W. E. Evans, Galt, were appointed representatives from the Commercial Section.

Re Communication 3:

Moved by S. B. Hatch, seconded by W. Baird, "That the Education Department be recommended to establish a Commercial Diploma Examination. The examination to consist of (a) papers on:

1. Bookkeeping Theory.
2. Bookkeeping Practice.
3. Business Law.
4. Business Forms.
5. Business Correspondence.
6. Spelling.
7. Commercial Arithmetic.
8. Stenography Practice.

(b) The standing of the Lower School in History, Literature, Composition, Geography and Algebra.

Re Communication 3:

Moved by W. E. Evans, seconded by J. J. Bailey, in view of the fact that the courses at present are entirely inadequate that four one-half hour periods per week be devoted to Writing during the Lower School Course and that the course in Bookkeeping for Teachers' Certificates be increased.

Moved by S. B. Hatch, seconded by F. W. Edward, that:

Whereas the Writing in the Public Schools is unsatisfactory owing to the insufficient training of the teachers in this subject, we recommend that Writing be on the course for Junior and Senior Teachers in Training and that sufficient time be spent on it to enable them to acquire a good handwriting. Carried.

The Secretary reported Commercial Diploma Examination Papers on hand ready for revision before printing.

Committee struck:

1. Committee to revise examination papers, The Secretary, C. S. Webster, J. A. Ramsay.

2. Nominating Committee, W. Ward, J. A. Ramsay, R. H. Eldon.

WEDNESDAY, April 22, 1908.

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES.

The Nominating Committee brought in their report after which the officers were duly elected.

The Revising Committee reported that the Commercial Diploma Examination Papers would be satisfactory. The Secretary was instructed to have the papers printed and furnish them to the teachers of the Province at the rate of twenty-five cents for the first set and five cents for each additional set.

HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION

April 21st.

The High School principals met in the West Hall, at 10 o'clock, the President, Mr. A. Steel, in the chair.

The Minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved.

The Treasurer's report showed a balance on hand of \$13.35.

Interesting and instructive papers were read as follows:

1. The Headmaster, his Duties and his Rights. Alex. Steel, B.A.

2. The Examination Standard for Junior and Senior Teachers. N. L. Massey, B.A.

3. The Method and Standard of Matriculation. E. W. Hagarty, B.A.

4. Some Problems for Experimental Treatment in School Work. W. S. Ellis, M.A.

The following officers were elected:

President.....F. C. Colbeck.

Secretary.....H. J. Crawford.

MINUTES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, April 21st, 1908.

The Public School Department of The Ontario Educational Association met in the East Hall of the University of Toronto.

Meeting called to order at 10 a.m.

Mr. H. Ward, B.A., President, in the chair.

The President read a portion of Scripture and led in prayer.

S. Acheson was elected Minute-Secretary, and as the Minutes of last year's meetings were printed in the Annual Report of the Proceedings, they were taken as read, and adopted.

The following communications from county teachers' associations were read, each donating the stated amount to this Department:

Essex, South	\$2 00	Oxford	\$5 00
Kingston	2 00	Perth	2 00
Leeds, No. I	4 00	Prince Edward	2 00
Lennox and Addington. 3 00		Toronto	5 00
Lincoln	3 00	Victoria	4 00
Middlesex, West	2 00	Waterloo	2 00
Muskoka, North	2 00	Wentworth	2 00

Total.....\$40 00

The following communications and resolutions were presented:

1. From Waterloo Teachers' Association *re*
 - (a) Public School Inspectors' Certificates.
 - (b) The Preparation of a Public School Geography.
2. From West Middlesex Teachers' Association *re*
 - (a) The Continuance of Model Schools.
 - (b) Colored Supplements in Newspapers.
 - (c) The Meetings of the Advisory Council.
 - (d) One Text-book in each subject.
 - (e) The granting of Permits to teach.
3. From Leeds No. I. Teachers' Association *re*
The Publishing of a Provincial Teachers' Directory.

4. From Perth Teachers' Association *re* removing the name of an examiner who shows poor judgment in setting Departmental Examination Papers.

5. From Oxford Teachers' Association *re*

(a) Approving of the formation of a Teachers' Alliance.

(b) Making the attendance at Manual Training and Domestic Science classes compulsory.

6. From Toronto Principals' Association *re*

(a) Characteristics for a new set of Readers.

(b) A Part I. Public School Leaving Examination.

7. From W. H. G. Colles, P. S. Inspector, *re*

Teachers doing janitor work in their Schools.

8. Communications regarding the Entrance Examination from Principals of Collegiate Institutes, Principals of High Schools, Principals of Public and Model Schools, Public School Inspectors.

9. Communications regarding the preparation of the Entrance candidates in Part I. and Part II. subjects and as compared with candidates of former years when Part I. subjects were examination subjects:

From Principals of Collegiate Institutes, and High Schools.

From Public School Inspectors.

10. From Canadian and American cities *re*

The schedule of salaries paid to teachers.

11. From Canadian and American authorities *re*

Their Compulsory Attendance Acts.

12. From American State Superintendents *re*

Minimum salary legislation in their States.

13. The Officers of the Local Associations.

It was moved by Chas. G. Fraser, and seconded by Jas. D. Denny, that the resolutions of the Local Associations be referred to the Committee on Resolutions. Carried.

It was moved by G. A. Cole, and seconded by P. W. Fairman, that the Committee on Resolutions be appointed by the President. Carried.

Secretary Fraser presented his report. (See page 262.)

It was moved by H. Gray, and seconded by W. C. Marriott, that the Secretary's report be received and that the thanks of this Department be tendered to him for his able and efficient work. Carried.

It was moved by R. A. Ward, and seconded by G. A. Cole, that the Secretary's report be referred to the Committee on Resolutions. Carried.

Treasurer Langford then presented his report showing :

Balance from 1906-1907	\$ 61 96
Members' fees (inc. Gen. Ass'n fees).....	203 50
Receipts from Local Associations	40 00

Total receipts	\$305 46
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Paid members' fees to Genl. Assn.	\$102 00
Paid railway agent (viséing tickets)	46 50
Expenses of this Department	93 76

Total expenditure	\$242 26
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Balance on hand	63 23
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It was moved by T. E. Langford, M.A., and seconded by H. Gray, M.A., that this report be received and referred to the auditors. Carried.

Miss Harriette Johnston, J. W. Plewes, and T. A. Reid, three of the Public School representatives on the Advisory Council, presented a verbal report of the work of the year but regretted that on account of the regulations governing the work of the Council, they could not speak freely of the work in hand, not even to mention what was at present under consideration.

A. A. Jordan and John Rogers were unable to be present at this Session on account of illness in the home.

The report of the Legislation Committee was then presented by Secretary Fraser, and was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

The report of the "State Salary" Committee was then presented and is as follows :

Through the kindness and co-operation of the great daily newspapers of Toronto, the number of "state salary" advertisements is becoming less, but they continue to appear. We would recommend that two tracts be prepared by this Department of the O.E.A. to appear in the public press and be sent to those who seem to need special missionary attention.

(1) *A tract to trustees*, urging upon their attention the folly of putting their schools up to "dutch auction" by asking each applicant to state the salary required, that the cheapest may be engaged with the consequent wrongs to the schools, the teachers and education generally.

(2) *A tract to teachers*, calling their attention to the advisability of not answering such advertisements as a financial and professional necessity.

The report was received and adopted.

The Committee on the division of the Public School Curriculum asked leave to report later.

The following notices of motion were then received :

1. From T. A. Reid, *re* the claims of Urban Schools to increased grants.

2. From C. G. Fraser, *re* the limiting of certain positions to teachers having first-class certificates.

3. From J. E. Whiting, *re* the making known of questions under consideration by the Advisory Council.

4. From J. D. Denny, *re* an increase in the number of Public School representatives on the Advisory Council and the division of the Province into electoral districts for their election.

James D. Denny then presented his paper on "What shall be the standard for Entrance to the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes—an Examination or a Teacher's Recommendation? If an Examination, should it be local or Provincial?. (See page 256.)

It was moved by J. M. Root, and seconded by W. J. Karr, that this paper be referred to the Committee on Resolutions and appear in the Report of the Proceedings. Carried.

The President named the following as the Committee on Resolutions :

H. Ward (Toronto), C. E. Kelly (Hamilton), G. A. Cole (Orillia), Chas. G. Fraser (Toronto), J. W. Plewes (Chatham), T. E. Reid (Owen Sound), Wm. Linton (Galt), Jas. D. Denny (Ottawa), W. J. Campbell (Belleville), P. W. Fairman (Trenton), J. T. Curtis (Milverton), Miss H. Johnston (Toronto), and Miss T. McKenna (Woodstock).

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Joint Meeting of Three Departments.

Inspectors—Training—Public School.

Dr. John Waugh, 'President Inspectors' Department, in the chair.

Wm. Pakenham, B.A., D.Pæd., Dean of the Faculty of Education, read a paper on "Some Present Day Problems in Education."

It was moved by J. Suddaby, and seconded by J. C. Brown, that a vote of thanks be tendered Dr. Pakenham for his able and far-reaching paper in regard to the transitional nature of our present educational problems, and that it appear in the Report. Carried.

J. P. Hoag, B.A., then spoke on "Urban Problems—Financial and Administrative," and T. A. Reid spoke on "The Claims of Urban Schools to increased Grants." The following took part in the discussion: C. B. Edwards, E. T. Young, W. F. Moore, G. A. Cole, W. F. Chapman.

A vote of thanks was passed to Mr. Hoag and Mr. Reid for their excellent addresses.

The meeting then adjourned

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd, 1908.

MORNING SESSION.

Meeting opened at 9 a.m., with devotional exercises led by G. A. Cole.

President Ward in the chair.

The Minutes of the first day's meetings were read and approved.

Mr. J. W. Rogers and Mr. R. G. Elliott were appointed auditors.

Notices of motion were then taken up.

Moved by T. A. Reid, and seconded by D. Young, "That the Public School Department of the O.E.A. express its approval of the general principles of the scheme of 1907, for the apportionment of the greatly increased grants to the Rural Schools, and urge upon the Government and the Legislature of the Province the claims of Urban Public Schools to equitable treatment with

Rural Schools in the matter of Legislative Grants. That it prepare a memo setting forth what it considers equitable treatment. That it seek the co-operation of the Trustees, Inspectors and Training Departments in this matter."

It was moved in amendment by W. F. Moore and seconded by H. Gray, that the motion be referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

It was moved in amendment to the amendment by Chas. G. Fraser and seconded by T. A. Reid, that the President name a Committee from this Department to prepare a report on the question of increased Legislative Grants to the Urban Schools, and that we request the Trustees, Inspectors and Training Departments to appoint representatives to act with this Committee.

The amendment to the amendment carried.

The President named T. A. Reid, G. A. Cole and J. D. Denny as the Committee.

It was moved by J. E. Whiting and seconded by W. T. Ferguson, that the President and the Secretary of this Department should be fully informed of all questions under consideration by the representatives of the Public School Teachers on the Advisory Council. Lost.

It was moved by Chas. G. Fraser and seconded by G. A. Cole, "That the matter of certificate should not be the only point to be considered in deciding what teachers shall be qualified to take the position of teacher or principal of any Public School." Carried.

It was moved by Jas D. Denny and seconded by C. E. Kelly, "That the number of the Public School representatives on the Advisory Council be increased from four to seven and that the Province be divided into seven electoral districts, each of which shall elect one representative to the Council." Carried.

The following notices of motion were received.

(1) T. Packer, *re* selecting persons to prepare text-books for the Public Schools.

(2) T. Packer, *re* authorizing text-books before they have been passed upon by the teachers of experience of the Province.

(3) T. A. Reid, *re* the kindergarten forming part of the Public School Course in every school.

(4) H. Gray, that the salary of the Secretary of this Department be increased from \$15 to \$50.

Geo. A. Cole, Vice-President of this Department, was called to the chair.

H. Ward, B.A., then delivered the President's address on "A Public School Course of Study," a synopsis of which follows:

In many of the departments, the principal work is the preparation of the program for the annual meeting, but the Public School Department has always taken an active interest in both the Legislation and Regulations which relate to our work, and this interest should be all the greater just at the present time when the whole field of Public Education is in an unsettled condition. Experienced teachers know the conditions and requirements as no one else can, and may have unlimited influence in the bettering of conditions if they will but follow up their resolutions with data and reasons. Do not leave the whole of this work to your Executive and Committees, but let each one feel personally responsible for a share of the work. The Educational Authorities have shown themselves ready to receive suggestions, but we must be ready to show why our requests should be granted.

At the present moment the most vital question is, "A Public School Course of Study," and necessarily following that, a series of Text-books to properly cover the course laid down.

A good general course should consist of a minimum of compulsory work together with a maximum of suggestive work. In public education, in this age, it is impossible to carry on the work from the point of view of utility for each individual, hence we are obliged to search out the fundamentals and leave specialization to a later stage, and to schools for special purposes.

The Public School Course being compulsory should provide a general basis for any superstructure, but should specialize towards none.

Again, keeping this purpose in view, are all orders of taking up the subjects chosen, and the parts of each subjects thus chosen equally good? There can be but one answer to this question. Are all teachers equally competent to judge of this order? With all our faith in the members of our profession we cannot answer yes. We conclude, therefore, that it would be wise to have a definite order of study based on the development of the activities of the child's mind. This definiteness is necessary, whether we consider the lack of permanence in the profession, or the changing of pupils from one school or class to another.

So far as we can make out from a study of the make up of our present course, it is a result, not of a general survey of the requirements, in the light of the study of the development of the child, but rather an attempt to add such patches from time to time as were forced on the Educational Authorities by the growing importance of one thing or another as a subject of instruction, or the changing of the course to suit some text-book which must needs be authorized.

Not only has this been done in the past, but it is what we find is now being done. Is the present order not that of first arranging a set of text-books—which work is being pushed forward by our Educational Authorities, aided by our elected representatives? Our course of study will then naturally be forced into the line of the text-books.

We think the proper order should be the reverse of this: 1st. Decide what subjects should be taught. 2nd. Decide the order in which the work should be taken in each subject. 3rd. Connect each subject and each stage in its development with the proper stage in the development of the child. 4th. Decide how much of each subject can be taken up in each year of the course.

This work can be done only by those who are in closest touch with the actual work of the school-room. Such a course should be provisionally made out and sent out for a year's trial and criticism. With such a provisional course as a basis and its criticism by the experienced teachers of the province, as well as by experts chosen by the Department, we would be in a position to proceed to provide books or to decide what books should be used.

It was moved and seconded that the President's Address be published in the Report of Proceedings. Carried.

J. W. Rogers, M.A., then presented the Auditors' report, complimenting the Treasurer on the way the books had been kept. Report was adopted.

The following officers were then elected:

<i>President</i>	Geo. A. Cole, Orillia.
<i>Vice President</i>	Jas. D. Denny, Ottawa.
<i>Director</i>	H. Ward, B.A., Toronto.
<i>Secretary</i>	Chas. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto.
<i>Treasurer</i>	J. T. Curtis, Milverton.

The resolution of the Toronto Principals' Association as amended by the Committee on Resolutions was then presented.

(1) That a Provincial Examination be held at the end of the Eighth Grade or Senior Fourth class of the Public Schools, and that students who pass this examination shall be entitled to attend any High School, Collegiate Institute or Continuation School in the Province.

(2) (a) That papers be set on all the essential subjects of the course—Reading, Writing, Spelling, Arithmetic, Grammar, Composition, Literature, Geography and History; (b) That the result of this examination be considered in connection with the Teacher's estimate of the standing of the pupil in each subject; (c) and that the mark required for passing be 40 per cent. on each subject and 60 per cent. on the total.

(3) That a detailed curriculum of the work in these subjects be drawn up for the Province and that local authorities be allowed the privilege of extending this course by including certain optional subjects according to a curriculum which shall be supplied.

(4) That the papers for this examination be set by a Provincial Board of Examiners appointed by the Education Department and shall consist of three members—one representative from the Public School who is directly associated with the work of the Eighth Grade, but not engaged in it; one from the High School and one Public School Inspector. These shall meet and consult together on the papers and be individually and collectively responsible for each and every paper set.

(5) That there be a Local Board of Examiners for each inspectorate, to carry out the work of the Examination. They shall be composed of representatives of the three educational interests connected with such work, but Public School representatives shall predominate; and these Local Boards of Examiners be not intrusted with such unlimited powers as the Local Boards at present have, but that all material deviations from this plan receive the sanction of the Education Department.

It was moved and seconded, that the report be taken up clause by clause. Carried.

Clause 1 was carried.

It was moved by J. Bennett and seconded by Geo. M. Ritchie, that Clause 2 be amended by striking out the word "History."

After some discussion of this motion the meeting adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Joint meeting—Training and Public School Departments, in Convocation Hall.

H. Ward, B.A., President Public School Department, in the chair.

D. D. Moshier, B.A., D.Pæd., introduced the discussion of the subject "The Function of the Public, High and Training Schools in the Making of a Teacher," and F. W. Merchant, M.A., D.Pæd., and S. Silcox, B.A., D.Pæd., continued the discussion and were followed by Prof. Paterson, R. W. Hicks, Thos. Packer, J. Suddaby, John Dearness, and R. T. Downey.

The other Departments then entered and a joint meeting of all the Departments followed.

THURSDAY, April 23rd, 1908.

MORNING SESSION.

Meeting opened with devotional exercises led by the President.

The Minute Secretary read part of Wednesday's Minutes.

It was moved, that the Minutes be taken as read.

It was moved in amendment by J. Bennett and R. A. Ward, that the minutes be left over till completed. Amendment carried.

The discussion of Mr. Packer's two motions *re* text-books was deferred till the subject should come up in the report of the Committee on Resolutions.

In the absence of Mr. Gray, it was moved by W. F. Moore and seconded by Jas. D. Denny, that the honorarium to the Secretary of this Department shall be \$50 for the services rendered during the past year.

It was moved in amendment by R. A. Ward and seconded by J. Bennett, that the motion be amended by making the amount \$40 instead of \$50.

The amendment was lost. The motion was carried.

It was moved by T. A. Reid and seconded by Geo. A. Cole, "That this Department is of the opinion that the Kindergarten should be a part of the Public School Course in every school where practicable, and to this end special inducements should be offered by the Education Department by way of grants; (1) on the initial cost of establishment and (2) on maintenance." Carried.

It was moved by Thos. Packer and seconded by D. Young, that some method of applying the principles of the Kindergarten to every primary department of the Public Schools should be devised. Carried.

The report of the Committee on the division of the curriculum was presented and is as follows :

The Committee consisted of Messrs. Silcox, Mills, Stevens, Leake and Chisholm from the Inspectors' Department, and Miss Semple, Messrs. Denny, Beaton, D. Young, and E. Ward, of the Public School Department. The work was apportioned among the members early in 1907. Mr. Leake is preparing, for the Education Department, a very much more detailed course in Manual Training than the present one, and, accordingly he asked that that Course be accepted by the Committee.

A meeting of the Committee was called yesterday (Tuesday), at 1 o'clock. After discussion, the following resolution was carried. That in view of the fact that committees of teachers in Hamilton, Toronto, and Ottawa are engaged upon similar work for their respective cities, we recommend that the work of this Committee be continued for another year, that the names of Miss A. Powell, of London, and Mr. S. B. McCready, B.A., Guelph, be added to the Committee, that Inspector Chapman take the place of Mr. Silcox, and that the adaptation of the work to the needs of the rural schools be kept in mind.

S. SILCOX, *Convener*.

The report was received and the request granted.

The President then presented the report of the Committee on Resolutions.

It was moved and seconded, that the report be taken up clause by clause. Carried.

Clause 1. That no certificate to teach, except as an assistant, be granted to any person under 21 years of age. Carried.

In place of Clause 2 of the resolutions of 1907 :

The resolution of the Waterloo County Teachers' Association be inserted, "That the Honorable the Minister of Education be respectfully asked to submit to the Advisory Council, the entire question of Inspectors' qualifications and certificates for consideration and amendment."

After some discussion Messrs. Denny, Packer and Groves were appointed a committee to draft a suitable resolution to submit to the meeting. This resolution was:

That the requirements for a Public School Inspectors' certificate shall be:

(a) The holding of a first class Professional Certificate of qualification;

(b) An experience of ten years' successful teaching in Public Schools, covering all grades of Public School work;

(c) The passing of a pedagogical examination, controlled by the Department of Education, or the securing of a Degree in Pedagogy in any recognized Canadian University.

The report of the special committee was adopted.

Clause 3. The Principals of Continuation Schools, where at least two teachers are engaged exclusively in work beyond the Entrance Examination, should be members of the Entrance Boards. Carried.

That Clause 4 be amended to read:

That when the Minister of Education contemplates the authorization of a text-book on any subject, he should give one year's notice of his intention thereof, that those, who wish, may submit a book—in type-written form if necessary; and that Public School teachers be consulted in the preparation and selection of all Public School texts. Carried.

Clause 5. That the Present Practical Speller on account of its method of arrangement and the large number of unfamiliar words selected—words that are seldom used—is unsuited to the use of Public Schools, and that it should be replaced by a more suitable text having the following features:

(a) The including of lists of words in ordinary use and those used in the teaching of the work of the present Public School curriculum; and the omission of all words that are seldom used or which are of a highly technical nature.

(b) The including of words of similar meaning and those of similar sound which are in common use and giving the peculiar force, or meaning, of each.

(c) The placing of the lists of "Difficult Words for Review" at the end of the book.

(d) The arranging of the words of each group in three columns according to their difficulty so that the work can easily be assigned

to each class, giving each the attainable and the reasonable without the teacher having to choose and the pupils to mark the words, as is necessary with the arrangement of the present book.

(e) The including of the prefixes, affixes and roots of the present work.

(f) Ten or twelve blank pages at the end of the book for pupils' mistakes. Carried.

That for Clause 6, "That the Ontario Readers, after twenty years of service, should now give place to a set of Readers, that would reflect more correctly our nationality of to-day; that would be more in accord with educational principles in character of matter, arrangement and adaptation to the needs of the various grades; that would be models of excellence in illustration, type, paper, and binding; and that a separate reader be supplied for the work of each grade," the resolution of the Toronto Principals' Association be inserted:

(a) That the new series of Readers for Ontario should consist of eight books—one book for each grade—each containing matter sufficient for one year.

(b) That in the matter of word recognition, the books be based on a logical use of phonics; and being for the purpose of teaching reading, the matter should be so arranged as to provide a proper development of, and practice in, pronunciation, articulation, voice training, and vocal expression.

(c) That, keeping in view the principles laid down in clause b, the matter of the readers be selected in accordance with the spirit of civilization—adjusting the child to his world of to-day, at each stage of his evolution—his progress towards the culture of the race—giving due prominence to both nature and human nature, including the ideals and virtues of humanity, not in a moralizing manner, but in story and incident; that each selection should be a literary whole, such as the child of the grade can appreciate, not forgetting that often the heart can apprehend what the mind cannot explain; and that each reader of the series bear the impress of our national spirit.

(d) That the paper, printing, binding and illustrations be of superior quality, briefly, "art-literature" readers, containing many reproductions of the masterpieces. Carried

Clause 7, "That the work for junior and senior classes in the different forms in the Public Schools be definitely defined," was amended to read:

That the work in each of the ten grades of the Public Schools be clearly defined; and that the text-books should then be prepared, or selected, on the basis of the work as thus defined, not in the opposite order. Carried.

That Clause 8. "That the Grammar papers of the Entrance Examination in 1905 and 1906 were of too highly technical a character and that in future the questions be more in harmony with the limit laid down by the Department," be omitted. Carried.

Clause 9. That in the near future, Manual Training and Domestic Science be made compulsory in all urban centres, was amended to read, "That where Manual Training and Domestic Science are introduced into a school, attendance at these classes shall be made compulsory." Carried.

Clause 10. That members of the Advisory Council should have the power to introduce the discussion of any educational question. Carried.

Clause 11. That the interests of Education in the Rural Schools would be best served by having Boards of Five Trustees to manage the school affairs of each Township. Carried.

Clause 12. That the holidays in Rural Schools should correspond with those in Urban Schools. Carried.

Clause 13. That Section 91 of the 1904 Regulations be so amended as not to require the holding of a meeting of a teachers' institute on Saturday.

Clause 14. That the Education Department be requested to make the School Year end on the 30th of June and to have the annual reports of the pupils' attendance made out accordingly.

That in place of Clause 15, "That the appointment, payment, and full control of Truant Officers should be vested in the School Boards or Boards of Education," the following resolution be inserted: That a Special Committee consisting of Messrs. Ward, Fraser, Cole, Kelly, and McJanet, be appointed to consider the question of a Compulsory Attendance Act, and with power to take action. Carried.

Clause 16. "That a Provincial System of Superannuation for Teachers, directed and aided by the Government, should be adopted, and that the whole teaching body of the Province should be

required to contribute to the funds thereof," amended to read: That the Government be asked to provide and support a system of superannuation for the Teachers of the Province. Carried.

Clause 17. "That the attention of the proper authorities be called to what we regard as a most extortionate charge of \$190 for a few hours of clerical work viséing the railway certificates of those attending this Association," was omitted.

Clause 18. That the resolution of the Toronto Principals' Association regarding a Provincial Part I. Public School Leaving Examination be adopted.

It was moved that this resolution be taken up clause by clause. (See page 269.) Carried.

Clause 1. Adopted.

Clause 2 (a) was amended by striking out the word "History."

The motion by J. Bennett and R. A. Ward, to substitute "Written Reading" for "Literature," was lost.

The motion of Thos. Packer and T. E. Langford, that all after the word "Geography" be struck out, was lost.

The motion of J. Bennett and R. A. Ward, that all after the words "the teacher's estimate of the standing of the pupil in each subject" be struck out, was lost.

The motion of H. Gray and R. W. Hicks, to insert "Physiology and Hygiene," after the word Geography, was lost.

The motion of R. A. Ward and J. Bennett, that all these resolutions be left over till next year, was lost.

It was moved by R. A. Ward and seconded by J. Bennett, that we defer further discussion of this question till we have concluded routine business. Carried.

The usual allowances to the Minute Secretary and the Treasurer were passed.

The thanks of the Association were tendered to the retiring officers and President Ward and Treasurer Langford responded.

It was moved by Secretary Fraser and G. A. Cole, that the thanks of this Department be expressed to the *Canadian Teacher* for its many kindnesses in the past in placing its columns at our disposal for insertion of matter pertaining to this Department. Carried.

It was moved by Secretary Fraser and P. W. Fairman, that the great daily and weekly newspapers of the Province be asked to

devote a column or more regularly to the discussion of matters pertaining to the Public Schools of the Province and that local Committees be formed to furnish the matter therefor. Lost.

It was moved by R. A. Ward and J. Bennett, that the incoming Executive, with power to add to their number, be empowered to act as a Legislative Committee to present the resolutions of this Department to the proper authorities. Carried

The meeting then returned to the consideration of Clause 2 of the resolution of the Toronto Principals' Association.

It was moved by R. A. Ward and seconded by J. Bennett, that we do now adjourn. Lost.

It was moved by Jas. D. Denny and seconded by Chas. G. Fraser, that the following clause be added, "That one-half the marks in Literature be assigned on prescribed work and at least one-fourth the marks in Arithmetic be on mechanical work of the four simple rules." Carried.

Clauses 3, 4 and 5 were adopted.

The resolution as amended was adopted.

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Joint meeting—Training and Public School Departments.

Dr. Silcox in the chair.

D. J. Goggin, D.C.L., presented a paper on "What constitutes a good text-book in Reading, Spelling and Literature." (See page 248.)

W. E. Groves submitted an outline of what a good text-book in Composition and Grammar should contain.

COMPOSITION.

Two Books—one for Second and Third Book classes, one for Fourth and Fifth—avoids too great bulk, permits a greater assortment of material, and greater supply of matter for classes.

Divide each book into parts, each part covering a year's work in the subject—each part should provide for the necessary review of previous work.

Paper, binding, illustrations, type, printing, should be above reproach.

Material that should appear in each year's work.

Oral Material in form of pictures with suggestive questions to aid in bringing out what is in the picture, and to revive similar experiences in the minds of the pupils; in early classes pictures should suggest action, figures few, motive simple; be more difficult as pupils advance; add descriptive pictures in conjunction with landscape, colour work and nature observations. In Fifth Book classes pictures might suggest a considerable degree of the deeper emotions as sympathy, joy, anger, etc.

Reproduction Stories. Simple and brief in lower classes—include wider interests, greater complexity of plot, as classes advance—reproduction of fables, imitation of fables; imitation of narrative or of description, conscious imitation of the narrative of description where arrangement, style, even expressions, are imitated, not the mere incident.

Outlines of Composition—at least twelve in each year's work—topics for division into outlines by class—many subjects for practice in dividing into paragraph topics.

Narrative Composition. Simple subjects for original effort, in Third Book classes—more difficult in Book II.

Descriptive Compositions. Simple subjects for original effort, in Third Book classes—more difficult in Book II—have place from beginning—descriptions of common objects, as teacher's chair, table, home, house across the way, church; domestic animals especially if studied in connection with nature work: description of a face, a man. Simplest objects in early classes, more difficult and complex for Fourth and Fifth Book classes.

Exposition and Argument—might well be omitted from Book I—demands maturity of thought and reasoning power beyond Second and Third Book classes. Should be given prominence in Book II.

Models of Choice English for close study by the pupils in class—not limited to two or three selections in each year.

Letters—form, matter, arrangement, opening, closing—friendly, business—abundance of practice—no pupil should be allowed to pass through our schools ignorant as to the writing of any ordinary letter.

Punctuation. A little in all the classes—in Second Book classes, the periods and interrogation—in Third Book classes, the more evident uses of the comma—in Fourth Book classes, a few

additional uses of the comma with the semi-colon—in Fifth Book classes all these would be demanded. Numerous examples for punctuation by the pupils should be inserted for each year—the more general rules.

Sentence Structure. Practice in forceful arrangement of sentences.

Paragraphing. Elements of paragraphing in all classes—exercises for division into paragraphs for all classes.

Precision. In each year should be inserted a list of words of similar meaning for purpose of securing the precise meaning of each—include here, words sounded alike or nearly so, but spelled differently and *vice versa*.

Connectives. Prominence given by way of exercises to secure proper use of connective—loss of force and meaning through neglect—but, yet, still, however, notwithstanding, on the contrary, on the other hand, in the second place, etc.

Capitalization and Abbreviation. The more common rules of capitalization and the meaning of the more general abbreviations should find place in Book II—not grouped all in one place, but submitted here a little, and there a little. Rules for capitals.

Variety. Exercises seeking various ways of saying the same thing—as Tuesday, one day this week, one day recently, not long ago, etc.; the wind may be a breeze, a gale, a tempest, a hurricane; it roars, bellows, howls, screams, shrieks, sobs, wails, moans, whispers, murmurs, sighs. The waves, dash, roar, devour, thunder, surge, seethe, swallow, engulf, break, etc.

GRAMMAR.

Begin with Fourth Book class—a thought subject—Book I. of Composition would furnish material for thought.

One book for Fourth and Fifth Book classes.

Method of study should be inductive in arriving at rule and definition. Hence many exercises on which to base the rule; also numerous exercises to test deductively, the rule derived by induction. Rules should be carefully worded, such as will stand criticism. Example of what not to have, “An adjective is a quality word,” or “An intransitive verb is one that requires an object to complete its sense.”

In Fifth Book classes provision should be made for a brief historical review of the English language.

Omit the portion now devoted to Composition as that is covered by suggested book in Composition.

It was moved by J. W. Plewes and seconded by Miss Bureau, that this joint meeting recommend the authorization of one or more books in Composition and a separate book in Grammar. Carried.

J. W. Plewes presented a list of the features good text-books in History and Geography should contain.

A History Text-book should be :—

1. Complete—It should be sufficient for Fifth Class pupils. If such a book is found too advanced for Junior Pupils, a junior book or Historical Readers should be provided.

2. A text-book for pupils' use. It should not of necessity contain all the teacher should know.

3. Arranged neither exclusively topically nor chronologically. It should permit the use of teacher's own ideas and ideals.

4. Well illustrated—The illustrations should be educative. Portraits of obscure personages are not needed.

5. Printed in large type on good paper.

6. Supplied with chronological tables at the end of the book. The most of the dates should be placed here also, very few appearing in the text.

7. Well proportioned, as regards the relative importance of each topic and the amount of space devoted to each. Also due historical perspective should be observed.

8. Written in an interesting manner. While numerous stories and events are necessary, a text-book should not be encyclopædic.

9. Should have a chapter on Civics.

10. The British history should have a chapter on the growth of the Empire.

11. The Canadian history should devote proper attention to every province.

A Text-book in Geography should be :—

1. Comprehensive—No other subject has so developed as Geography. The world is a new one to the student of a decade ago. The new text-book should be full of information for the pupil.

2. Based on Physical Geography—Commercial geography should be developed from the physical.

3. Filled with good illustrations—These should be from photographs, well selected, and printed on good paper.

4. Supplied with numerous maps—few details should be put in maps of Continents—sectional maps should provide the details.

5. Written in an interesting style—full of the really interesting facts about every section.

6. Have an appendix—easily altered—containing statistics. This should be kept strictly up to date.

7. Free from questions before and after each chapter unless they are of a character to stimulate interest.

8. Of a size in keeping with that of other books. The size of page should not be large enough to cover the desk and prevent pupils from using a note or exercise book. The amount of geography needed cannot be put in one volume of convenient size, therefore we should have two or more volumes, or Geographical Readers, for junior pupils.

A committee consisting of Messrs. Denny, Stickles, Shaw, McMaster, Marriott, Louck, Campbell, Cole, Fraser, MacMillan, Smith and Ward, was appointed to act with Mr. Plewes in the preparation of a list of the features a good Geography and History should have, and this Committee was given discretionary powers.

C. E. Kelly gave an outline the features a good text-book in Arithmetic should contain.

The meeting then adjourned.

CHAS. G. FRASER,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, April 21st.

The Kindergarten Department of the Ontario Educational Association held its first session this morning, in the Ladies' Reading Room of the University of Toronto.

The attendance, notwithstanding the regret that it was a small per cent. of the total number of Kindergartners in the Province, was very gratifying. The number registrating this first day exceeded our entire registration last year.

After the singing of the Teachers' Hymn, the Minutes of last year were read and confirmed. As there was no business calling for immediate transaction, Miss Johnston, our President, delivered an address of special interest to all Kindergartners this 21st day of April. From many Kindergarten centres we had gathered, and together could celebrate the birthday of one whose message to the world was embodied in the system of education known as the Kindergarten. Miss Johnston felt it to be not only unique that we should so assemble this day, but considered it an opportune time for reviewing Fröbel's life history, and gaining from it fresh inspiration.

One hundred and twenty-six years ago, a child was born that was destined to influence deeply the thought and meaning of Education. To understand Fröbel aright, careful study must be given to the condition of the time in which he lived. In every realm of life there were strong evidences of a reaching forth from bondage to freedom. The political world sought freedom and the educational movement was a forward one.

At all such periods of crisis there have arisen men who were endued with a prophetic spirit far in advance of their time; so much so, that the majority of the people arise in strong opposition. Fröbel's success was largely the result of overcoming difficulties. The first great loss in life he atoned for by placing at the very heart of education an idealized mother. The disjointed harmonies which premeated life in many aspects and the deplorable conditions following such, Fröbel felt arose from lack of appreciation of the interdependence of individual beings. Living in the domestic environment of unrest and agitation, a religious environment of dissatisfaction and an educational environmet of reform, it is but natural that Fröbel was a thinker. We are thankful that he was also a doer. The entire Kindergarten movement as we review its history was an evolution of experience. The founding of the Kindergarten was not the goal in Fröbel's life but the practical response of the needs of humanity as they appeared to him after a life of devotion and earnest study. The reconciliation, not the elmination of the opposing theories, was his object. He did not

accept in its entirety neither of the views maintained by the leaders of his period, but maintaining neutral ground, abstracted the truth from each. It is the philosophy resulting from this abstraction added to his original view of life that resulted in the embodiment of symbols which are given the child at this particular stage in his development. It was never Fröbel's intention that Kindergarten should hold a monopoly of this philosophy, for it extends to the widest domains of life. Fröbel focused his attention upon the beginning of life, believing that if this be rightly interpreted the superstructure would not fail because of insecurity of foundation.

No matter how much disagreement there may be in the minds of modern thinkers as to the adaptability of teachers, all agree with Fröbel's thought that a motherly woman should be the teacher of children between the ages of four and seven.

After tracing the path along which Fröbel travelled ere his creative power reached its highest point, Miss Johnston showed very clearly the *place* of the Kindergarten. Its games, gifts and occupations are to *train* the child, not merely to amuse him. Their very essence is their adaptability to spiritual unfolding.

Fröbel's example calls forth in his followers not merely an acceptance of his doctrines but an apostolic devotion to the cause of Kindergarten. To the close of his life, he was a student not only of books, but of every phase of life. His was a mind open to all that was true, and a sympathetic heart to all that was pure. The festival was a part of his educational plan. Festivals are important because they are based upon and incite to activity the great invisible army of emotions permeated by one common ideal. Individuals are united in festivals as they are in no other way. The rise and fall of the Kindergarten movement has been enacted repeatedly since Fröbel's time, because it satisfied a universal need it must therefore remain a part of the whole plan of education. Just how great a part depends on those who have accepted its principles and are living up to them.

From the present general atmosphere of criticism which the Kindergarten is undergoing in many places, Miss Johnston felt it to be prophetic of much good, it was much more hopeful than half hearted indifferent acceptance. If the critics will only look long enough, and think deeply, the principles of growth as applied to the development of children of Kindergarten age will appeal to

the highest and best, and thus the Kindergarten will be recognized as a vital need in the child's education.

At the conclusion of the address, Miss Maud Paterson was called upon to report on the International Kindergarten Union held last year in New York. Miss Paterson was greatly impressed throughout the entire Convention with the strong evidence of the individuality of thought of the various leaders as expressed by each. Under the apparent conflict of the view points presented, the one grand aim united all. Of especial interest to which our attention was called, was that of Miss Wheelock's in her exposition of the Mother Play. To Miss Wheelock, this is Frœbel's best teacher. Another thought which was strongly emphasized was that the Kindergarten should develop power

As the hour for the next paper had come, Miss Paterson very kindly acceded to the President's request that we not further delay Mr. Wm. Scott, Principal of Toronto Normal, who had prepared for us a paper on "The Kindergarten as an integral part of the Public School System." A very keen and interested attitude of mind can best describe that of Mr. Scott's audience, all were eager to hear him, all felt what he had come to believe was not only the result of closest study and conviction, but he spoke as one whose authority as a foremost educator in our Province, has long been recognized. His entire address was an inspiration. Education, Mr. Scott said, should take the natural inclination of the child and see that they are rightly trained. The Kindergarten was a congenial atmosphere for stimulation of self-activity. The child is an organism whose development is subject to organic laws. He must be so developed that he becomes a power to teach himself, he should be a discoverer, should rely on his own resources. One very important thought which Mr. Scott emphasized, and which teachers of all grades should recognize was, that *stimulus to work* was more important than ability to know, making effort rather than achieving success. Many reasons were given *why* the Kindergarten was an integral part of the Public School System. The child's needs seek it. He is now at the ages between four and six, he is becoming conscious of his social birth, family life cannot alone, any longer nourish and sustain this new life, a wider life must offer sustenance and if this is to be a valued and desirable power the Kindergarten should be one of the means of greatest importance. As Frœbel studied educational methods as applied to child

growth, he found it had produced a condition of affairs in which the child was either undeveloped or misdeveloped. The Kindergarten was a miniature of the whole world, the material used, made the child (when rightly used) a planning and executive being. In the handling of blocks he became acquainted with fundamental forms. The Plays and Games introduced him to the social whole, the welfare of all being felt, the social side was trained to act in union with the life of the whole. In this there was the dawning of the higher self. One right former, Mr. Scott believed, was worth a thousand reformers.

The Kindergarten's greatest value was in the social aspect of the life of the child, who in the home or in the primary room *at this stage*, suffered from insufficient stimulus to the highest development of this power. The child begins to know he must have a co-operate conscious, dimly it may be, but he *feels* the life of the world. The child's destined life is to grow. Very fully Mr. Scott outlined the three stages in life, 1st, Play Stage; 2nd, Constructive Stage; 3rd, Learning Stage. At the end of the first stage, the Kindergarten received the child.

The difficulties of the Primary Teacher were shown if the child entered this grade direct from the home. The Kindergarten should stand for the development of power, not to teach data. The child should learn obedience to law. Perfect self willing, is obedience to law. Fröbel's philosophy was one perfect interpretation of the conception of obedience. No development could otherwise follow.

At the conclusion of this most valued paper of Mr. Scott's, it was moved by Miss Paterson, seconded by Miss Laidlaw, and carried unanimously that with the writer's permission, the paper be printed in pamphlet form as well as in the Proceedings. (See page 275.)

A very animated discussion followed in which many participated, among the number being, Mrs. A. M. Hughes; Miss Bolton, of Ottawa Normal; Miss Jean R. Laidlaw; Inspector C. B. Edwards, of London; Mr. Westervelt, of the Trustee Department, and Principal T. A. Reid, of Owen Sound.

Before adjourning the Secretary read an invitation which had been received from the past Presidents and present President, to a Fröbel birthday tea, at the "Teapot Inn," at 4.30, this afternoon.

The afternoon session opened with a very delightful collection of songs given by a group of Toronto Kindergartners. The sing-

ing of these songs, selected from interests in the world of nature, the joyous messages of spring, and the call of the industrial world, created a most pleasing atmosphere. Music hath ever its charm of appeal, to which the heart of all willingly respond.

For the pleasure which was ours to enjoy, we are greatly indebted to the Toronto Kindergartners, whose singing, under the direction of Miss Maud Paterson, was sympathetically pleasing.

"Scientific Child Study" was the subject upon which Miss Jean R. Laidlaw addressed us. It was a wide field, and in introducing her subject, Miss Laidlaw stated her purpose was limited chiefly to that part of the field in which so little was done.

The necessity of knowing the child's control of his body and the state of his senses, is obvious, one should know whether the child is eye minded or ear minded. Tests should be made to see whether there is a physical bar to his mental development. Many interesting illustrations were given from Dr. Tanner's book called, "The Child." This book was recommended as a splendid source of reference. There must be general and special questions before data can be gathered. An outline of the form of questions was given. In the great field of study, most earnest and persistent work is needed. Of what do the manifestations of child life, his desires and actions speak? Can his needs be satisfied unless a thorough understanding is ours? A discussion followed in which the fact was emphasized that children in their interpretation of language, often get most confused ideas of thoughts.

The meeting adjourned in the orthodox manner, but only a short time elapsed ere the members found themselves together again, this time the happy guests of the past Presidents and present President of our Department. The Fræbel tea at the "Teapot Inn" will be ever associated with the pleasantest of times by the Kindergartners who enjoyed an hour over the tea-cups, in an atmosphere made very delightful by such happy hostesses as it is our Department's privilege to claim relationship to in the past and present.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

The second morning of our Convention was one of greatest satisfaction. It opened with the reading of the Minutes of the previous day, followed by the Treasurer's report, both were adopted as read. The Treasury has a balance on hand of \$42.13.

A communication was read from Dr. Helen MacMurchy, thanking us for our invitation, and stating her intention, if possible, of being with us at one of our sessions.

The election of officers resulted in the following being elected by acclamation:

President..... Miss Clara Brenton, London.
Director Miss Grace Johnston, Stratford.
Secretary..... Miss Hannah Heakes, Toronto.

An announcement was given by the President, that a matter of great importance pertaining to regulations would be considered to-morrow at the business meeting. Befitting the Assembly of Kindergartners, "A Morning Talk" was participated in by all, under the guidance of Miss Paterson, of Toronto.

This was a very delightful and unique part of our program. Miss Paterson's talk with us as children, carried on with a keenly interested and sympathetic attitude throughout, made the half hour thus spent one of much profit.

The awakening of spring, we doubt not was felt through the charming little message in song and conversation. A question on Symbolism, which Miss Paterson brought up later, Mrs. Hughes, in replying, said the new life, not death, should and would make its appeal to the child who could joyously respond to this call. If through any of life's experiences, admiration, faith and love, had been quickened into being, or deepened, living was deeper and truer.

Before proceeding with the next part of our program, Dr. Helen MacMurchy presented, on behalf of the Hygiene Section, a request which asked for our Department's co-operation.

Rev. T. J. Thompson, M.A., of Stratford, then addressed us on "The Kindergarten's Contribution to Good Citizenship." In introducing his subject Mr. Thompson referred to Canada's open shore to all people, and because of this, education had a serious problem to deal with. Good citizenship should characterize the life of her people, the social life makes it imperative that the time for action is at hand.

New occasions means new duties, citizenship included, far more than going to the poll on election day. The religious and educational ideals lead the way. One of the clearest and most convinc-

ing statements of the *place* of the Kindergarten was given in the following words: "The Kindergarten should interpret the school to the home, and the home to the school." This Mr. Thompson proved through the varying experiences which this relationship sustained. In answering the question, "Is the Kindergarten worth while?" The one answer of supremest importance was that personal equation was the truest solution—the teacher herself gave it meaning. Incapable teachers were mechanical workers, such could be found, and to them the child existed for the Kindergarten, rather than the Kindergarten for the child. Mr. Thompson's address was an inspiration to all, marked as it was with great sincerity, to this was added the appreciable delicate touch of humor. As an outside beholder of our work, we felt greatly indebted to Mr. Thompson for the time and study he has given to this question.

Mrs. Hughes undoubtedly voiced the appreciation of all when she told Mr. Thompson she felt sure that he had never preached a better sermon.

It was unanimously requested that the paper be printed in the Proceedings. (See page 287.)

The meeting adjourned at 12.15.

THURSDAY, April 23rd.

The Department opened at 9.30 a.m., with the reading and adoption of the Minutes of the previous meeting. Following the transaction of important business, a unanimous request was made that we have Rev. Mr. Thompson's paper printed (along with Mr. Scott's) in pamphlet form. Granted.

Mrs. Hughes then referred to the very vital topic—the place of the Kindergarten—which this year interested other Departments. She spoke of Dr. Wm. T. Harris, late Commissioner of Education in the States, who is credited with saying that the Kindergarten's future was going to be considered from both the ideal and financial side. Mrs. Hughes believed that the *child* must ever be the point from which the Kindergarten must be studied. Very strongly did she oppose the suggestion which had been made by some school officials that the children return in the afternoon for more Kindergarten work. Miss Ada Baker, of Ottawa Normal, also supported this argument, making a strong plea for the *child's* interests being first interests.

It was moved by Mrs. Hughes, seconded by Miss L. Downs, that the chair appoint a Committee to carefully consider the resolutions which were brought before our Department, by Principal T. A. Reid, of Owen Sound. Carried.

In the resolutions, claims of the Kindergarten were set forth and suggestions given as to the solution of these claims.

The following Committee was appointed:—Mrs. A. M. Hughes, Toronto; Miss Maud Lyons, Ottawa; Miss L. N. Curry, Toronto; Miss Jean R. Laidlaw, London, and the Executive Board.

The "Round Table on Stories" proved to be very great interest as evidenced by the very large attendance. In the story told by Mrs. Hughes one felt the joy the child would feel and his glad response to the appeal so delightfully made. Universal truths from nature, and the great social world were most interestingly portrayed in the stories told by Miss Maud Lyon, Ottawa; Miss Edythe Millar, Toronto; Miss Gertrude Bapty, London; Miss Helen McTaggart, Chatham; and Miss Ethel Howell, of Brantford. No further confirmation is needed, it has long been accepted, the joy all feel when the "Story Hour" has arrived.

So great was the interest manifested by "A Group of Games" conducted by Miss Grace Dickson and Miss Gertude Bapty, both of London, that by special request all were invited to return in the afternoon to join in the plays and thereby share in the rejuvenation which such plays give.

Before playing the games, Miss Dickson pointed out very clearly the relation of games to life. The fact so evident to-day could not be but greatly deplored, that people seemed content to give over very largely to the professionally trained players, their own need and right. This explained the existence of an ever increasing number of cheap theatres, the vaudeville, and all such form of amusement, which meant a lowered vitality in the life of a people when such took the place of the free glad and active plays so invigorating and stimulating to all who really played.

National, social and industrial ideas were embodied in the "Folk Games," and with these games as a medium the foreigners in our schools could find a ready and happy assistance in their adjustment to the otherwise very new conditions.

In the series of games to be presented great emphasis was placed on the fact that they were *not* Kindergarten games.

Miss Bapty and others demonstrated the applicability of the ideas set forth.

Many responded to the invitation extended for the afternoon. The games were played with great enjoyment, all feeling it had been well worth their while to have joined the happy gathering.

Our thanks are sincerely extended to all who so kindly assisted us in our program. As the Convention closed for the year 1908, it is ours to record (and we do it with much pleasure) the largest registration of members in the history of this Department, may we also hope, that not in number only, but in inspiration which will mean better work in the future in our schools, was this year's Convention an unprecedented success.

CLARA BRENTON, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, April 21st.

The Training Department of the Ontario Educational Association met at 10.20 a.m., in Room 4, of the University of Toronto.

The opening exercises were conducted by Dr. S. Silcox, Chairman of the Department, after which he delivered a most practical address on "The Function of the Training Department."

Discussion followed by Messrs. Keys, Sinclair, Suddaby and Walker.

A Printing Committee was then appointed, composed of Messrs. Silcox, Putman, Robinson and Wilson. Mr. S. J. Keys was appointed Press Reporter.

"The Ethics of Professional Training" was the subject of a very instructive paper read by Mr. J. B. Robinson, Hamilton. Discussion followed by several members present, after which the meeting adjourned until 2 p.m.

At this hour Dr. Wm. Pakenham, addressed a joint meeting of the Training, Inspectors' and Public School Departments on "Some Present Day Problems in Education."

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

The Department met at 9.30 a.m. The Chairman conducted the opening exercises. The minutes of previous meeting were read and confirmed.

The election of officers for the ensuing year then took place, resulting as follows:—

Chairman..... S. J. Keys, Cornwall.
Secretary..... W. Wilson, West Toronto.
Director..... Dr. Morgan, Ottawa.

Mr. C. F. Lavell, Ph.D., then discussed the following topic:—
 “The Place and Value of the History of Education in our Curriculum.”

A most interesting discussion followed by Prof. Coleman, Dr. Sinclair, and Messrs. Suddaby, Putman and Dearness.

Messrs. Scott, Merchant and Keys were appointed a committee to look into the future well-being of the Training Department and to report at the next annual meeting. Then followed an interesting discussion on the present system of Kindergarten work. This also was referred to a committee composed of next year's officers of the Department.

Mr. S. Pickles, of London Normal School, then exemplified his method of teaching the “Manual Arts in Normal Schools,” after which the meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, April 23rd.

The Department met at 9.45 a.m. The Chairman conducted the opening exercises. The minutes of last meeting were read and confirmed.

Mr. J. H. Putman, of Ottawa, then read a very thoughtful paper on “The Effect of Student Teachers on the Model School Pupils.”

An interesting discussion followed by Messrs. Silcox, Sinclair, Jordan, Merchant, Scott, Moshier, Downey, Morgan, Dearness and Wilson.

The Convention of 1908 was then closed.

WM. WILSON, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, April 21st.

This Department met at 10.30 a.m., in Room 12, the Chairman, Dr. Waugh, presiding. The proceedings were opened with prayer by Mr. J. H. Knight.

The minutes for 1907 were adopted and Mr. C. B. Edwards was appointed Press Secretary.

Mr. G. K. Mills gave notice of a series of questions relating to the work of a County Inspector, which he wished to have discussed, if opportunity offered, during the present meeting.

An important paper on "The Dual Language Problem in Public Schools" was then given by Mr. W. J. Summerby in which he referred particularly to conditions in the French-English schools of Eastern Ontario, of the Northern Districts, and of the County of Essex. As French children come to these schools knowing nothing of English, Mr. Summerby argued in favor of teaching them to read only French during the first year or two of their school life, but, at the same time, using every effort to teach them to *speak* English. In this way they would in the end make more rapid progress with both languages. A profitable discussion followed, in which Messrs. Prendergast, McLaughlin, and others took part.

A committee consisting of Messrs. Summerby, Prendergast, Chenay, McDougall and Mills, was appointed to present the substance of the paper and the discussion to the General Association.

The following new members were then introduced: Messrs. Voaden, of Sarnia, and Gaboury, of Plantagenet.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

At 2.00 p.m. a joint meeting was held with the Public School Department at which papers were given by Dr. Pakenham on "Some Present Day Problems in Education," and Mr. J. P. Hoag on "Urban Problems, Financial and Administrative." Mr. Hoag pointed out that the Legislature had anticipated his discussion of the first part of the subject by already increasing the grant to Urban schools. He then proceeded to discuss other urban

problems, emphasizing the need of more individual and group teaching and less purely class teaching. An interesting discussion followed.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

In the absence of Dr. Waugh, W. E. Tilley, Ph.D., was appointed Chairman *pro tem*, and the election of officers for 1909 was proceeded with, resulting as follows:—

Chairman.....D. Robb, Brussels.
 Secretary.....T. W. Standing, Brantford.
 Director.....G. K. Mills, Collingwood.

The discussion of the questions announced by G. K. Mills, was then taken up. The main topics considered were township grants, school libraries, P. S. Leaving Examinations and methods of teaching writing and drawing.

The Chairman, Dr. Waugh, then gave his address. He reviewed the progress of education in the past, characterizing it as a record of unrest and a constant striving after reality. He made a plea for more co-ordination in our educational means—in the preparation of text-books, in the conduct of examinations. Dr. Waugh received the thanks of the Department and was requested to permit his address to be published in the Proceedings.

The question of modifying or abolishing the Entrance Examination was referred to the Committee on Resolutions, named by the Chairman, as follows: W. H. Stevens, W. I. Chisholm, T. W. Standing.

At this stage Mr. Young, of the P. S. Department, was given permission to address the Inspectors on the newly-organized Ontario Teachers' Alliance. After explaining its objects and aims he appealed for the sympathy and co-operation of the Inspectors. The matter was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Four new members, Messrs. Mowat, Scovell, McDougall, and J. H. Smith (Chatham), were then introduced.

The report of the Committee on Bible Readings was presented by Rev. W. H. G. Colles as follows:—

"Your committee appointed to consider the question of the introduction into the schools of the Selected Scripture Readings of the International Bible Reading Association for use in connection with the opening religious exercises, approve of their use and recommend that the Department of Education be requested to furnish copies of these readings to all the schools, either printed in the school register or on a leaflet that can be pasted in the register or the Bible."

On motion by Rev. Mr. Colles and Mr. W. Mackintosh, the above report was adopted. The mover and seconder of this motion were appointed a committee to present this matter for adoption by the General Association.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

The Department resumed shortly after 2 o'clock, Dr. Waugh in the chair.

The Committee on Curriculum, appointed last year with Dr. Silcox as convener, reported progress and recommended that the work of the committee be continued for another year; also that Miss A. Powell, London, and Mr. S. B. McCready, Guelph, be added to the committee, and that the adaptation of the course to the needs of the rural schools be kept in mind. Dr. Silcox also wrote requesting that, as he is no longer a member of this Department, another convener be named for the committee.

Moved by C. B. Edwards and Dr. McDiarmid, that the above report be received and the committee continued in office for another year. Carried

Moved by C. B. Edwards and J. Coyle Brown, that Mr. W. F. Chapman be substituted for Dr. Silcox as convener of the committee. Carried.

Moved by G. K. Mills and C. B. Edwards, that Miss A. Powell and Mr. S. B. McCready be nominated as additional members of the Committee on Curriculum. Carried.

Mr. W. I. Chisholm and Rev. W. H. G. Colles then reported somewhat fully on the work done by them as representatives of the Inspectors on the Advisory Council.

The need of a General Register for Public Schools was brought up in this connection, and after some discussion it was resolved,

on motion by W. Mackintosh and J. H. Knight, that the Inspectors respectfully recommend the Education Department to provide the Public Schools with a suitable General Register.

On motion by D. Robb and W. Mackintosh, it was resolved, that the Education Department be respectfully requested to prepare a manual consolidating the School Law and Regulations to be ready for distribution by September.

Moved by C. B. Edwards and J. H. Smith, that the Education Department be respectfully requested to place the pay of Presiding officers at the Departmental Examinations upon a more equitable basis than it is at present. Carried.

A resolution from the P. S. Department was read asking that a committee of three be appointed from the Inspectors to co-operate with similar committees from the Public School, Trustees' and Training Departments in urging the claims of Urban schools for equitable treatment with the rural schools in the matter of Legislative grants.

On motion by Messrs. Mills and Burgess, the Inspectors' Department expressed its approval of the recent increased grant to Urban schools.

Dr. Waugh then reported briefly on the work of the Standing Committee on Legislation during the year.

It being the privilege of the Inspectors this year according to custom to nominate the President for the General Association, it was moved by Rev. W. H. G. Colles, seconded by Dr. McDiarmid, that Dr. John Waugh be the nominee of this Department. The motion was carried and Mr. Colles and Mr. Edwards were appointed to make the nomination at the General Association.

THURSDAY, April 23rd.

Business was resumed at 9.30 a.m., Dr. Waugh in the chair.

Mr. C. B. Edwards reported for the Committee on the relation of Public School Inspectors to the training of teachers. The report rehearsed the efforts of the Committee to influence the character of the training that should be given in the Normal Schools, and pointed out that in the present Draft Syllabus an effort has been made by the Education Department to meet the views of the Committee, (1) in practice teaching, (2) in child study, (3) in making the course in psychology more experimental.

On motion of C. B. Edwards and C. W. Mulloy, the report was adopted, and on motion of Messrs. Tilley and H. F. Cook, the Committee was continued in office for another year.

Mr. Chapman next gave his paper on "Medical Inspection of Schools," which was so fully appreciated that a motion was carried ordering it to be printed in the Proceedings.

The paper was discussed fully by the Inspectors, and also by Dr. Helen MacMurchy and Dr. Bryans, of Toronto, who were present.

The following motion by Mr. Hoag and Mr. Chisholm was unanimously carried: That this Department heartily approves of the Medical Inspection of Schools and that a committee be named by the Chairman to confer with the Ontario Government on this matter and respectfully urge upon them the advisability of bringing the idea prominently to the attention of the proper local authorities throughout the Province. The following were the Committee named: Messrs. C. B. Edwards, J. P. Hoag and W. F. Chapman.

Mr. S. Huff was appointed auditor in place of Mr. L. A. Green, who was absent.

The Committee on Resolutions reported on the two matters submitted to them as follows:—

1. That for ~~the~~ present we do not favor the proposal made in certain quarters that the Entrance Examination should be abolished and that its place should be taken by the recommendation of the teacher; because of (1) the inexperience and lack of mature judgment of many teachers, (2) the frequent changes of teachers, (3) the impossibility of applying the proposed plan equitably to all schools, (4) the probability of undue interference on the part of parents.

2. That we approve of the general principles of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance as laid down in their Draft Constitution, which has been submitted to us.

On motion by Messrs. W. H. Stevens and G. K. Mills, the report was adopted.

An interesting and suggestive paper on "Nature Study in the Rural Schools" was then read by Mr. G. K. Mills, and after further discussion of the subject the paper was ordered to be printed.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON

A carefully prepared and valuable paper was read by J. H. Smith, of Wentworth, on "The California School System." A vote of thanks was tendered Mr. Smith and he was requested to have a synopsis of his paper printed in the Proceedings of the Association.

Mr. Chisholm then gave his paper on "The Rights of Rural Children," which proved particularly interesting and provoked a very general discussion.

On motion by Dr. Tilley and W. H. Stevens, the Executive was authorized to have Mr. Chisholm's paper, and the other papers read before the Department, published in the Proceedings.

The meeting then adjourned.

T. W. STANDING, *Secretary of Inspectors' Department.*

MINUTES OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

FIRST SESSION.

APRIL 21st.

The twenty-second annual convention of the Public and High School Trustees of Ontario began at University College, Toronto, at 2.20 p.m.

After the registration of delegates, the President, L. K. Murton, Esq., took the chair. Rev. Mr. Bell offered prayer.

It was moved by Mr. John Anderson, Arthur, seconded by Mr. R. Mann, of Teeswater, that Messrs. Rev. Bell, Rev. Wilkins and Mr. Ward be the Press Committee. Carried.

Messrs. Rutherford and Corbett were appointed Auditors.

The printed minutes of the proceedings of this department, held April 2nd, 3rd and 4th, 1907, were considered and upon motion made by Rev. Mr. Wilkins, seconded by Mr. Todd,—which was carried,—the minutes were referred to a committee composed of the following gentlemen: Messrs. Anderson, McGee and Wilkins, they to hand in a report on following day.

The executive committee were instructed to appoint the committee who are to interview the Minister of Education, upon any questions referred to him by the members during the sessions.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

The following report of the Treasurer was read, received and referred to the Auditors:—

RECEIPTS

Cash on hand	\$ 8 55	
Total receipts from members	174 50	
General Association	50 00	
	—————	\$233 05

EXPENDITURE.

Paid R. W. Doan, Gen. Sec.....	\$ 51 00	
“ for stationary	1 25	
“ railway companies	22 50	
“ R. W. Doan, Gen. Sec.	3 00	
“ Geo. Klinck, printing	47 75	
“ Geo. Anson Aylesworth	75 00	
“ A. Werner, sessional allowance ...	15 00	
“ postage, etc.	10 00	
“ printing programs	4 00	
Bal on hand	3 55	
	—————	\$233 05

A. WERNER, *Treasurer*.

The President, Mr. L. K. Murton, read the following address:—
(See page 350.)

It was moved by Rev. Wilkins, seconded by Mr. Corbett, that the following gentlemen be a committee to deal with the President's address: Messrs. Ormiston, Wilkins, Kelly, McCarther and Young. Carried.

At 3.30 p.m. Prof. S. B. McCready, of the Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, read a paper on “How the Rural Schools can be helped by the Ontario Agricultural College.”

Mr. McEwing, Drayton, referred to the qualifications necessary for the teacher to have in order to give instructions in Agriculture. The equipment of our schools would require to be improved before it could be made a success. Prof. McCready, in answer to Mr. McEwing's references, pointed out clearly how all schools can make a beginning and if once commenced the interest in the work would increase.

Mr. J. J. Morrison, Arthur, spoke of the present conditions in our rural schools, A. Werner, Elmira, referred to the interest that school children take in such affairs over which they have full control and for which they are held responsible.

Rev. Mr. Bell spoke of some of the causes leading to a condition of discontentedness among children attending school.

It was moved by Mr. McKnight and seconded by Mr. Todd, that a cordial vote of thanks of this department be tendered Prof. McCready. for the exceedingly interesting and instructive address and that it be printed in our minutes. Carried.

No. 2.

At 4.50 p.m. Col. Farewell read a paper on Truancy and the Truancy Act. (See page 372.)

Mr. Rutherford spoke in reference to the ages of children under the Compulsory School Attendance Act.

Mr. Staples spoke in reference to the difficulty of keeping teachers.

C. W. Kelly spoke in reference to furnishing remedies for the evils that Trustees have to contend against, strongly urging upon Trustees the duty of filling worthily the office of Trusteeship.

Moved by C. W. Kelly, seconded by Mr. McEwing, that this meeting tender a vote of thanks to Mr. J. E. Farewell for his able paper and that it be printed in our minutes. Carried.

Rev. Mr. Wilkins referred to the manner in which the Truant Officer is appointed.

G. A. Aylesworth, who was Secretary of the Association for a number of years, gave a retrospective history, and how the Association was meeting the purpose for which it was organized, and said in part that Ontario is looked up to in the Dominion in respect to its educational progress and owing to the development of the West under such peculiar circumstances, as emigrants are settling there from every portion of the globe we must be alive in order to meet the necessity of the peculiar conditions which have arisen.

Rev. Mr. Bell spoke in reference to the assistance which we can give the Rural School Trustee.

Mr. Rutherford referred to the management of the school.

C. McCarthur mentioned the hopeful outlook in a general improvement of the conditions other than which prevailed in the past.

Mr. Palmer, Oxford County, mentioned the organization of a County School Trustees' Association in the County of Oxford.

The following notices of motion were handed in:—

1. re Oxford Rural Schools, by Mr. Palmer.
2. re Publication for Trustees, by Mr. Rutherford.
3. re Truancy, by Rev. Wilkins.
4. re Rural School Associations, by Mr. Morrison.
5. re Military Training, by Mr. Truman.

A joint meeting with Inspectors' and Public Schools' Departments was held in Convocation Hall.

Meeting of the Trustees' section adjourned to meet Wednesday. 9 a.m.

APRIL 22nd.

The meeting opened at 9 a.m., the President in the chair. The Secretary read the minutes of previous session which upon motion were confirmed.

Notice of motion was handed in by P. J. Scots re payment of Legislative Grant, direct to Treasurer of School.

Re increase of number on executive, it was moved by Mr. Laughton, seconded by Mr. Wright, that the executive be increased from 6 to 9 members. Carried.

Moved by Laughton, seconded by Anderson, that Messrs. Wright, Rutherford, Morrison, and including the mover and seconder, be a Nominating Committee. Carried.

Auditors' report as follows: "Your committee appointed to audit the accounts of our department beg to report as follows: Total receipts, \$233.05; total expenditure, \$229.50; cash on hand, \$3.55. We have carefully examined all the receipts and expenditures with vouchers for the same and find them correct.

G. RUTHERFORD.

R. J. CORBETT.

Moved by Rutherford, and seconded by Corbett, that Auditors' report of Treasurer's statement be received and accepted. Carried.

Rev. Mr. Wilkins moved, seconded by Mr. Anderson, that 1907 minutes as revised be adopted. Carried.

Election of officers by ballot, J. B. Dow and John Anderson appointed scrutineers. Resulted as follows:—

President.....R. McKnight, Owen Sound.
Vice-President.....F. W. Wright, St. Thomas.
Sec.-Treasurer.....A. Werner, Elmira.

Messrs. J. B. Dow and J. H. Laughton gave a brief description of the work of the Advisory Council.

At 11.20 a.m. Mrs. Hoodless, Hamilton, read a paper on "The Ethical Value of Domestic Science."

Dr. Bryans, Toronto, expressed himself well pleased with the addresses and suggested certain improvements which could be made, in giving publicity to the work of the Association.

Moved by Mr. Wright, and seconded Mr. McEwing, that a cordial vote of thanks be tendered Mrs. Hoodless and that the paper or synopsis thereof be printed in our minutes. Carried.

Adjourned for lunch at 12.30, to meet at 2 p.m.

2.00 p.m.

The Secretary announced that all registration would cease after the opening of the afternoon session, that the railway companies would be able to return some of the certificates later on during the afternoon.

Report Nominating Committee of Executive Council:—

W. D. Euler, Berlin.

Dr. White, Lindsay.

C. M. Graham, London.

D. McGhee, Ottawa.

W. C. McArthur, Chatham.

M. Parkinson, Toronto.

J. J. Morrison, Arthur.

S. Truman, Kirkfield.

James McEwing, Drayton.

Moved by Mr. Aylesworth, and seconded by Rev. Bell, that the two representatives of this department on the Advisory Council be

appointed representatives on the committee to wait on the Minister of Education and lay before the Minister the claims of the Urban Public Schools, for equitable treatment with the Rural Schools in the matter of the Legislative grant. The Inspectors and Training Departments be asked to appoint three representatives to co-operate with us. Carried.

At 2.40 p.m. Mr. J. J. Morrison read a paper on "Rural School Trustee Association and Present Conditions." (See page 375.)

Moved by Mr. Anderson, seconded by Mr. McKinlay, that we cordially thank Mr. Morrison for his excellent paper just read by him, and that the same be printed on our minutes. Carried.

D. Ormiston expressed himself well pleased with the paper and hoped that Mr. Morrison, at some future time, could be persuaded to give the Association another paper.

Rev. Mr. Bell spoke re grants to Rural and Urban Schools.

Mr. Staples, of Victoria County, mentioned a few of the many difficulties present in the newly organized districts of Ontario, irregular attendance, bad roads, indifference to benefits of an education, keeping teachers, etc.

At 3.30 p.m. Mr. J. G. Elliot, Kingston, read a paper on "Citizen Making the Mission of the School." (See page 380.)

Moved by Mr. Aylesworth, seconded by Mr. Morrison, that this Association appreciates the great kindness of Mr. Elliot in giving the third paper on the very important question of "Citizen Making" and that we tender a vote of thanks to Mr. Elliot for the same and that the Association have the report printed in their minutes. Carried.

Joint meeting at 4 o'clock in Convocation Hall, where Mr. Jas. P. Haney, New York, gave a very instructive discourse on "The Manual Arts."

The following notices of motion were handed in:—

Re 5th form in the Public Schools, by James McEwing.

Mr. Aylesworth, who recently made an extensive tour in the Old Country, gave the meeting a very interesting description of the many interesting things he had seen and heard whilst travelling, and referred to the very difficult task we had on our hands in making Canada one of the greatest of nations. He urged that Canada do not copy other nations, but recommended we preserve our own individuality.

Meeting adjourned to meet Thursday, 9.30 a.m.

FORENOON, 23RD.

THURSDAY, April 23rd.

The Association resumed work at 9.30 a.m.

President in the chair.

The Secretary read the minutes of the previous day which were upon motion confirmed. The committee appointed to report on President's address, report "That the thanks of the Association are due our President for his able address, which showed that much time and earnest labor must have been spent in the preparation of the same. The Association appreciates the work done by him in its interests."

Aylesworth—Ormiston, the report be adopted. Carried.

Executive Committee report "That we recommend that Mr. C. W. Kelly be appointed Director."

McArthur—Anderson, That we adopt the report of the executive committee. Carried.

At 10.00 a.m. Mr. Parkinson, Toronto, gave a very interesting and instructive talk on "Points Picked Up in the Toronto Public Schools."

1st on Supervision of Rooms.

2nd on Free Text Books.

3rd on giving Prizes and Certificates, Medals, etc., as a reward for merit.

4th on what Certificates should be accepted for absence.

5th on what excuse should be accepted for being late.

6th on how to deal with excuses.

Morrison—Anderson, That the meeting desires to express its thanks to Mr. Parkinson for the very instructive discourse, and hope he will favor them on some future day with a continuation along the same lines.

Farewell—Elliot, That 2 representatives be added to the Advisory Council from this department, and that they be selected from the representatives of the Rural Schools present at our meetings. Carried.

Re Truancy. Moved by Rev. Mr. Wilkins, seconded by Col. Farewell, That this meeting re-affirm the resolution passed by this department in 1900. Carried.

At 11 a.m. a well attended joint meeting with College and High School Departments was held, when they listened to a very inter-

esting paper by Dr. W. Pakenham of Toronto University. The doctor defended the High Schools as necessary to the well being of the community. He showed that they are not getting the share of public expenditure, that their attendance and importance would entitle them to. It is the duty of the state to develop a proper type of manhood, cost what it may. The High Schools are developing character, physical soundness and intellectuality, besides preparing for many different practical pursuits. The title of the paper was "The High Schools, their Place and Importance in our Educational System."

The committee to interview the Minister is as follows:

J. H. Laughton, J. B. Dow, Rev. Mr. Wilkins, J. A. Morrison, G. A. Aylesworth, J. J. Morrison, G. Rutherford, Col. Farewell, J. G. Eliot, the President and Secretary. To meet upon notice by convener, and that J. H. Laughton be convener.

That as some slight token of our appreciation of the services rendered this Association by Mr. J. G. Elliot of Kingston, it was moved by J. H. Laughton and seconded by Col. Farewell, "That he be made an honorary member of the Trustees' Section." Carried.

Elliot—Farewell, That the Secretary be paid for his services as agreed upon last session. Carried.

Rutherford—Laughton, That in order to reach the Rural School Trustee the Committee appointed to interview the Hon. the Minister of Education, ask that the privilege of using the columns of Ontario Agricultural College Journal, be granted to Trustees, and that a section of the Journal be set apart for the use by Trustees for the discussion of any topics pertaining to Trustee work, whether in Collegiate Institute, High School, Public Schools of cities, towns or villages or Rural Public Schools. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Rutherford, seconded by Col. Farewell, that Mr. Truman's motion, namely: "Resolved, that this Association has heard, with regret, that the Minister of Militia, acting through the Education Department of the several Provinces, is striving to introduce into the Public Schools, a system of military training, including the use of rifles and the erection of rifle ranges. That this Association regards the proposed introduction of militarism into the Public Schools as unwise, unnecessary and prejudicial to the best interests of the country, and this Association

desires to place itself on record as opposed to the aforesaid innovation and pledges itself to oppose its introduction into the schools of Ontario," be left over, and that Mr. Truman bring in an amended resolution next year. Carried.

Messrs. L. K. Murton, J. E. Farewell, J. B. Dow, reported progress, and were again appointed a committee as per page 34 in 1907's report.

The President was asked to leave the chair, which was taken by Mr. McKnight.

Following resolution was moved by Mr. Wright, seconded by Mr. Elliot, That this Association beg to tender to the retiring President their cordial thanks for his patience and kindness exercised towards the members, and wish to express their appreciation of his decisions in the chair, mingling mercy with justice. Carried.

The retiring President, Mr. L. K. Murton, thanked the members for the expression and said that it had been a great pleasure to him to occupy the position, and only hoped the session would prove beneficial as well as pleasant to the members in attendance.

Upon singing God Save the King, the session closed.

MINUTES OF THE HOME SCIENCE SECTION.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

The fifth annual meeting of the Home Science Section was held in the Senate Chamber of Toronto University at 10 a.m. Miss MacPherson, the President, was in the chair.

Miss Hills was appointed Press Reporter. Misses Craig and Eadie were appointed Auditors. The Secretary-treasurer read the minutes, and financial report of the previous year. Both were adopted.

The Secretary reported that a motion had been made before the General Board of Directors that the Manual Arts Section and the Home Science Section unite, forming one department. It was moved by Miss Watson and seconded by Miss Fisher, that the matter be laid over until Thursday morning or until the Manual Arts Section communicate with our Section more directly. Carried.

A paper on "New Scientific Books" was read by Miss Benson in which she referred first to a pamphlet written by Prof. Fisher on "The Effect of Diet on Endurance." An extensive report published by the Carnegie Institute at Washington on the "Influence of Inanition on Metabolism," was next reviewed, followed by the latest work of Prof. Chittenden, entitled "The Nutrition of Man." After an interesting discussion of these books the meeting adjourned.

The afternoon session was opened by an address by Mr. G. A. Putnam on the "Work of Women's Institutes." There are now over 400 branches with a membership of about 12,000. One important result of this work is a demand for short courses in Household Science. Superintendent Putnam appealed to the Domestic Science teachers to place themselves in touch with the Women's Institutes in their respective districts with a view to bringing their work more prominently before the Institutes, and also to receive suggestions from Institute workers on the special needs of the people.

In the discussion which followed, Mrs. Hoodless introduced the subject of teaching Household Science in Rural Schools by the itinerant system.

"The Aims of the Household Economic Association" were presented by Mrs. A. M. Hughes, and that which was especially emphasized was "The best way of using time, strength and money in administering the affairs of the home." Mrs. Hughes spoke convincingly of the need for greater simplicity and individuality in the home. Votes of thanks were tendered to Mrs. Hughes and Mr. Putnam for their interesting and helpful addresses.

An announcement that an exhibition would be held in the Lillian Massey School to which all were cordially invited, was received with applause. The President appointed the following Nominating Committee: Misses Fisher, Laird, Hamilton, Tamblyn, Twiss.

Meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, April 23rd.

A paper written by Miss Reynar on "New Books referring to the Practical Side of Our Work," was read by Miss Ewing, owing to Miss Reynar's absence. The report compiled by Miss Ravenhill

was reviewed, and an outline of two books out of the series of "Home Economics" was also given. In the discussion which followed it was suggested that lists of useful books for school libraries be submitted by our teachers at each annual meeting.

The report of the Nominating Committee was called for, and the election of officers resulted as follows:—

<i>Honorary President</i>	Mrs. J. Hoodless.
<i>President</i>	Miss Ewing.
<i>Vice-President</i>	Miss J. Hills.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	Miss E. Eadie.
<i>Councillors</i>	Misses Twiss, Tamblyn, Allen, Reynar, De Laporte, Roddick.

The subject of "What work in Household Science should be covered in Public Schools and in High Schools," was introduced by Miss Ewing and discussed by Misses Hills, MacPherson and Twiss.

The Section adjourned.

MINUTES OF THE HYGIENE SECTION.

This year the papers and addresses on Hygiene and its allied subjects were to the point, instructive, particularly interesting, and elicited a free discussion among the members.

A practical demonstration of life-saving methods in connection with swimming and resuscitation methods in cases of drowning, was given at the University Gymnasium by Dr. J. W. Barton and his class of University students. There was a large attendance of pleased and satisfied spectators at the demonstration.

The papers were,

1. Report on the International Congress on School Hygiene, London, Dr. Wm. Oldwright.
2. Report on same Congress, Miss Nainby.
3. Report on same Congress, Dr. H. MacMurchy.
4. Medical Inspection of Schools, Mrs. A. Huestis.
5. Address on Supervised Playgrounds, J. J. Kelso.
6. Swimming and Live-saving, Dr. J. W. Barton.

The following motions were carried:

1. A hearty vote of thanks to Dr. Oldwright, Miss Nainby, and Dr. MacMurchy, for going to London and bringing back so much for the members to think over.

2. That Dr. H. MacMurchy represent the Hygiene section on the Board of Directors of the General Association.

3. That the membership in this section be twenty-five cents to members of the General Association, and one dollar to those who are not members of the General Association.

The following officers were elected:

<i>Honorary President</i>	Wm. Oldwright.
<i>President</i>	W. F. Chapman.
<i>Vice-President</i>	H. W. Auden.
<i>Director</i>	Miss Helen MacMurchy.
<i>Sec.-Treasurer</i>	J. F. Goodchild.
<i>Executive</i>	Miss Grace Johnson, Thos. Parker, W. E. Groves, John Hunter, A. P. Knight, C. J. O. Hastings, Mrs. A. Huestis, Miss E. Nainby, W. Scott, J. A. Amyot, C. A. Hodgetts (chairman).

MINUTES OF THE MANUAL ARTS SECTION.

TUESDAY, April 21, 1908.

The Manual Arts Section of the Ontario Educational Association met in Room 3 of Toronto University, the President, Mr. W. L. Richardson, Toronto, in the chair.

The Minutes of the meetings of 1907 having been printed in the Annual Proceedings were taken as read and adopted.

A communication from Mr. Jno. A. Cooper, of Toronto, re exhibits at Toronto Exhibition, other than from Toronto schools, was read, and on motion of Mr. Brennan, seconded by Mr. Moffatt, was received.

The President appointed Mr. S. Pickles, London, Press R. porter.

Mr. W. L. Richardson read his address, "The Relation of Manual Training to Industrial Education and Efficiency," a paper of solid, good, practical sense and above all of inspiration.

Moved by Mr. Brennan, seconded by Miss Semple, that Mr. Richardson's paper be incorporated in the volume of the Annual Proceedings. Carried.

It was decided to leave the discussion of Mr. Richardson's paper over until Thursday.

A discussion was entered into over the possibility of having printed copies of papers to be read, placed in the hands of the members so as to secure profitable discussion, the outcome being the following:—

Moved by Mr. Leake, seconded by Mr. Pickles, that a committee be appointed to consider the advisability of publishing papers in advance, and that the business of the Section be then confined to the discussion of such papers. Carried.

Messrs. Adams, Mercer and Tanton to be committee.

Moved by Miss Semple, seconded by Mr. Brennan, and carried, that Mr. Richardson lead in the discussion of Mr. Leake's paper, and that Mr. Houston review Mr. Richardson's paper.

Moved by Mr. Brennan, seconded by Mr. Leake, and carried, that the meeting begin at 9.30 a.m., Thursday, instead of at 10 a.m.

Moved by Mr. Brennan, seconded by Mr. Mercer, and carried, "That this Section endorse the action of the President in agreeing to contribute the sum of \$10 to the General Secretary, towards expense incurred in securing Dr. Haney."

Mr. Cooper's letter was then taken up for discussion, one particular feature, the giving of prizes, being more especially considered.

Moved by Mr. Moffatt, seconded by Mr. Pickles, and carried, that a committee be named by the President to offer suggestions and that special consideration be given the prize-giving side of the question.

Meeting adjourned for noon recess.

Meeting resumed at 2 p.m.

The meeting was called to order to hear Mr. J. H. Wilkinson's paper, "Forms of Constructive Work for Preliminary Training in the Manual Arts," discussion followed in which a number of the members participated.

Moved by Mr. Leake, seconded by Mr. Rostance, and carried, that Mr. Wilkinson's paper be incorporated in the Annual Proceedings.

Owing to a railway accident Mr. Hagerman, of Brockville, was unable to be present, Tuesday, and as the President had arranged with Inspector Hughes to deliver an address at the time allotted Mr. Hagerman, Mr. Brennan moved, seconded by Mr. Leake, that Mr. Hagerman's paper be taken as read, and, if suitable, be published in the Annual Proceedings. Carried.

Mr. Hughes then gave a most interesting and instructive address on "Creativity Related to Manual Training." At the close, after a few remarks by the President, the members of the Section expressed their hearty appreciation of Inspector Hughes' address.

Moved by Miss Semple, seconded by Mr. Rostance, and carried, that Inspector Hughes' paper be incorporated in the printed copy of the Annual Proceedings.

Meeting adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, April 22nd.

The President called the Section to order at ten o'clock.

Mr. Adams was requested to act as press reporter.

The Secretary made announcement *re* fees and railway certificates.

Mr. Hatch, of Kingston, then read an exceedingly interesting paper on Mechanical Drawing, entering fully into the details of the work.

A general discussion followed, in which most of those present took part.

It was moved by Mr. Errett, seconded by Mr. Hamilton, and carried, that Dr. Kirkland be asked to draft a series of conventional lines to be used in Public School and Technical School work, and submit the same at the next meeting of M. A. Section for approval.

Moved by Mr. Houston, seconded by Mr. Moffat, and carried, that Mr. Hatch's paper be incorporated in the printed Proceedings.

Mr. Hamilton then read a paper, "Should Manual Training Aim for Vocational Fitness."

Discussion followed, after which it was moved by Mr. Leake, seconded by Mr. Pickles, that Mr. Hamilton's paper appear in the copy of the printed Proceedings. Carried.

The meeting adjourned to meet at 1.30.

AFTERNOON.

Meeting resumed at 1.45, when Dr. J. P. Haney was introduced and delivered an admirable lecture, "Moot Points in Shop Practice."

Dr. Haney's lecture was intensely interesting, and at the close the discussion was led by Mr. Leake, followed by Mr. Mayberry, Mr. Ellis, Inspector Hughes and others.

A vote of thanks was tendered Dr. Haney on motion of Messrs. Houston and Ferrier.

Meeting adjourned at 3.35 to attend Dr. Haney's lecture in Convocation Hall.

THURSDAY, April 23rd.

The Manual Arts Section resumed business at 9.45 a.m.

The Section had been looking forward to Mr. Leake's address, "A Review of the Past and the Prospect for the Future," and were certainly not disappointed in their expectation.

Mr. Leake had many things of moment to bring before the teachers of M. T., and the importance of forging ahead in the work was forcibly impressed.

Mr. Richardson led in the discussion and was followed by Mr. Pickles, Mr. Mercer and others.

Mr. Richardson's paper was then discussed. Mr. Houston leading the discussion, followed by Mr. Keyes and others.

Moved by Mr. Houston, seconded by Mr. Brennan, and carried, that Mr. Leake's paper appear in the copy of the printed Proceedings.

Owing to pressure of time the minutes were taken as read and adopted.

The financial standing of the Section was briefly entered into and found satisfactory.

Election of Officers.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year, viz.:

<i>Hon. President</i>	W. L. Richardson, Toronto.
<i>President</i>	Miss A. A. Powell, London.
<i>Vice-President</i>	Mr. W. A. Adams, Stratford.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	Mr. D. W. Houston, Berlin.
<i>Councillors</i>	Mr. Faw, St. Thomas.
	Mr. Pickles, London.
	Mr. Mercer, Woodstock.
	Mr. Davidson, London.
	Mr. Yeo, Galt.

Meeting adjourned

W. L. RICHARDSON,
President.

D. W. HOUSTON,
Secretary.

MINUTES CONTINUATION SECTION.

WEDNESDAY SESSION, April 22.

The Continuation Section met at 2 p.m., Pres. R. J. Fuller in the chair.

Minutes of Provisional organization meeting read and adopted.

The Section went into committee, Messrs. J. A. Speers, M.A., Alliston, and J. H. Cameron, Brussels, presented a draft constitution which was adopted clause by clause, Mr. Speers in the chair. The committee rose and reported the final draft and the report was adopted.

The following officers were then elected:

<i>Honorary President</i>	R. H. Cowley, B.A.
<i>President</i>	J. H. Cameron, Brussels.
<i>Vice-President</i>	J. A. Speers, M.A., Alliston.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	T. E. Langford, M. A., Shelburne.
<i>Directors</i>	Miss Isabel K. Smith, B.A., Miss E. F. Tupling, Messrs. W. E. Stewart and A. C. Bernath.

The secretary-treasurer reported the year's work in outline and itemized expenses to date, amounting to \$8.63. The report was adopted.

Cameron-Stewart: That the secretary write all continuation teachers asking for a contribution to defray organization and current expenses. Carried.

Lindsay-Speers: That the secretary be authorized to meet all past expenses from the treasury of the Section. Carried.

Professor Dyde delivered an able and interesting lecture on "How to Read and Study Shakespeare." A hearty vote of appreciation followed.

Inspector R. H. Cowley spoke briefly concerning matters of the moment.

Section adjourned to meet at 11 a.m. to-morrow.

THURSDAY'S SESSION, April, 23.

The Section met pursuant to adjournment. The following resolutions were offered, discussed and passed:

1. That C. S. teachers should have a representative on the advisory council.
2. That principals of continuation schools where at least two teachers are engaged in work beyond H. S. entrance, should be ex-officio members of entrance boards of examiners.
3. That in the opinion of this Section the work in elementary science of the Lower School course should be materially reduced.

4. That this Section recommends the abolition of the present text in geography and the authorization of a new book with considerably less of the matter of the present text and more commercial and political geography.

F. P. Smith-J. W. Yake: That Professor Dyde's paper be procured and printed in the minutes. Carried.

E. H. Lindsay-F. Taunton: That the secretary request continuation school boards to contribute to the organization funds of this Section. Carried.

Taunton-Bernath: That Messrs. Speers, Lindsay and Langford be a committee to press our resolutions before the Department. Carried.

Cameron-Yake: That the secretary remit a cheque for \$10 (expenses) to Professor Dyde as soon as he shall have received sufficient funds to do so. Carried.

T. E. LANGFORD,
Secretary.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

OF

The Ontario Educational Association

1907-8.

RECEIPTS:

Balance from last year	\$388 73
Members' fees	465 50
Advertisements in Proceedings	77 50
Advertisements in Programme	95 00
Ontario Government, Annual Grant	1,000 00
Sale of Proceedings	34 35
	<hr/>
	\$2,061 08

PAYMENTS:

Expenses of Convention	\$42 25
Printing, mailing circulars, cards and programmes	128 30
Secretaries of Departments	60 00
Postage and delivery, etc.	248 64
Printing and binding Proceedings	856 66
Board of Directors, railway fare to attend meeting on Thanks- giving Day	35 55
Reporting the evening meetings	39 00
Lecturers' expenses	90 00
Trustees Department for printing, etc.	50 00
Salary, General Secretary	125 00
Salary, Treasurer	30 00
Balance in hand	355 68
	<hr/>
	\$2,061 08

R. W. DOAN,
Secretary.

W. J. HENDRY,
Treasurer.

We, the undersigned auditors, have examined the books, vouchers, orders and financial summary of the Treasurer of the O. E. A., Mr. W. J. Hendry, and have found them correct in every particular, with a balance on hand of \$388.73.

We also beg leave to commend the orderly and systematic manner in which the books have been kept, and to express our appreciation thereof.

D. YCUNG,
J. H. CAMERON,
Auditors.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.*PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.—SOME TENDENCIES IN
EDUCATION.*

L. E. EMBREE, M.A., LL.D.

In that early period of the world's history when the man did the hunting, fishing, and fighting, made the implements and weapons, and provided shelter for the family, while the woman cooked the food, made the clothing, and did the work of a common drudge for her lord and master, we have, no doubt, the earliest instance of the division of labor. We have no data from which to determine how soon thereafter in the history of the race we had that other instance, when parents, who were too ignorant, or too busy, or too indifferent to attend to all their parental duties, were obliged to share with some one else the duty of instructing their boys how to adjust themselves to the requirements of the simple life. If we should imagine some brute-man, or giant of the earth, in the prehistoric age, finding himself wholly occupied with hunting food, securing skins for clothing, and providing means of defence, while his wife was busy turning the skins around and about, or upside down, or inside out, as the changing fashion of those days might dictate, and decking her person with gewgaws for afternoon bridge-parties or other prehistoric social function, so that they had no time for child study or training, and had to call in the aid of a teacher, they must have discussed with him what subjects were to be taught. Ever since that first discussion, the question, "What shall we teach?" has been with us as persistently as those other questions of absorbing interest, "What shall we eat? What shall we drink? Wherewithal shall we be clothed?" and the last word on all these questions will be said about the same time.

It is unnecessary, however, to revert to prehistoric times, or even to a remote period in the history of educational development, to find instances of changing opinions, from one decade to another, as to the subjects that should be taught, as to what extent and in

what manner they should be taught, and as to the objects to be kept in view in the teaching. Some of us are old enough to recall the time when the teacher's chief duty was to see that the pupil acquired the knowledge placed before him in books, and the *dux* of the school was the pupil who was most skilled in repeating glibly and with parrot-like imitation the words of the book. I shall probably strike a reminiscent chord in some of you when I say that I can repeat to-day lists of adverbs and prepositions that I had to learn from Lennie's Grammar half a century ago. Those were the days, too, when the taws or the stout twigs of the formidable birch-tree were freely used as the chief persuader "along the flowery path of knowledge," when the teacher, "severe and stern to view," used to fling his leathern taws, like a ball, against the head of some "boding trembler" with an accuracy of aim that would do credit to the popular educational experts of our day, whose work, as described in the highly figurative language of our choice literary favorites, is to "twirl the leather across the plate." It would be superfluous to tell how the taws were carried to the master, and it would be painful to describe the interview that followed, except to remark that the whole course of procedure revealed a firm belief in the truth of the golden maxim that Ichabod Crane conscientiously bore in mind.

But let us be just, and be sparing of the ridicule that we are too apt, in our assumption of superior wisdom, to deal out to the teachers and the methods of those days; for, along with the useless lumber of adverbs and prepositions, and the too frequent use of the taws as a counter-irritant, there was a thoroughness in the mastery of the few books available, and the development of a self-reliance and a resourcefulness not surpassed in the broadening and more varied educational life of these later years. The habit of learning by heart accounts for the fact that boys and girls of those days could repeat such Biblical selections as the twenty-third Psalm, Isaiah's vision of the Messiah and His Kingdom, the Sermon on the Mount, and Paul's eulogy of love, and had such a general knowledge of the contents of the Bible as would put to shame the pupils and many of the teachers of the present day, whose knowledge of Biblical History and Literature has been gained chiefly from the scrappy lesson-leaves of the modern Sunday-School.

"The old order changeth," but the law of educational progress conforms to that which governs in other lines of human activity, and there is danger of the pendulum swinging, if it has not already swung, to the opposite extreme. From the abuse of text-books as a chief instrument of education, we have gone to the extreme of affecting to despise the use of text-books. Every child is now to be regarded as the maker as well as the solver of the problems that confront him. If school life is to be the microcosm of the larger life on which the child is preparing to enter, this so-called natural method that we are asked to follow in the schools is not the best sort of preparation for the work of a world where we are called upon to face problems that we have not the privilege of shaping to suit our own inclinations. Through the overworking of the inductive process in education the child is expected to rely upon his own little hatchet to carve out his own little path through the unknown, although there may lie near at hand broad avenues through which great discoverers blazed their way and were followed by explorers who "scorned delights and lived laborious days" to broaden and make more pleasant the pathways for others. Our methods of education must always afford opportunity and give encouragement to the men and women of genius who are to become the pioneers of thought, but, for the great majority, it will ever be true that they must follow in the footsteps of the pioneers, happy if they can only take some part in removing the obstacles that are ever and anon thrown in the path of progress.

Lack of knowledge of the Bible is not the only weakness that has resulted from the neglect of memorizing. Our boys and girls show the same appalling ignorance of the gems of thought in our literature that should be memorized, with more or less appreciation of their content, at a period when the memory faculty is most active. We are not likely to remedy this defect if we adopt the plan, now so generally recommended, of substituting the reading of a longer poem instead of a number of shorter poems in our Public School and junior High School classes. I do not object to the use of complete works instead of selections in prose, although many passages in prose could be selected that are suggestive and instructive, and complete enough in themselves; but we should discriminate between prose and poetry in this regard. A short poem is as complete an expression of the poet's thought as a longer one, and generally lends itself better to one of the most important purposes

of the study of poetry, namely, the memorizing of those passages that should be part of everybody's equipment. Take the poems of Longfellow, for example, and compare in this respect *Evangeline* with several of his shorter poems. Without any disparagement of *Evangeline* as a "tale of enduring affection," there are not more than a score or two of lines that any one should ask a child to commit to memory, not more than you would find in many a one of his shorter poems. While we may be doing right to discard prose selections, we should retain, for our junior pupils especially, books containing a number of shorter poems by several authors, many of which would be suitable for memorizing in whole or in part.

Some of us can recall the time when subjects that are now considered necessary in a complete course of study were seeking admission into our schools and colleges, and the early records of this Association throw some curious side-lights upon the conditions that then existed. From the reported proceedings of the year 1865, we find that the Grammar School funds were apportioned on the basis of the average attendance of pupils taking Classics, and in the same year a resolution was placed on record to the effect that the programme of studies should be extended to include therein the higher Mathematics, English Literature, and more of the Natural Sciences. So slowly did these new views gain acceptance that, twenty years afterwards, a distinguished professor of the University of Toronto, objected in the Senate to the enlargement of the course in English on the ground that as all the other subjects were taught in the English language there was no necessity for recognizing it as a distinct subject of study. At the meeting of 1865 it was also proposed that Greek and Latin be made optional subjects for girls after they had completed the first and second classes of the prescribed course of study for High Schools. I have not looked up the High School course of study of that date, but I infer from the language of the resolution that both Latin and Greek were then compulsory subjects. "The whirligig of Time brings in his revenges;" Greek has long since ceased to be compulsory, and even Latin has ceased to be compulsory as a High School subject, and we know not how soon its claims as a compulsory matriculation subject may be successfully disputed. Newer subjects that were considered upstarts not many years ago have pressed their way to recognition in every stage of educational work, from the Kindergarten, the Domestic Science, and the

Manual Arts of the Public Schools; and they are finding lodgement within the precincts of our Colleges, so long sacred to Classics and Culture. Imagine the consternation with which some of the University professors who passed off the stage a quarter of a century ago would glance through the pages of the last University calendars. To say nothing of the division of courses, and of the new courses, such as Political Economy, which were then seeking recognition, they would find others that would then have been laughed out of court, such as Household Science, Forestry, Commerce, Gymnastics. They would have considered the formation of a course in the linguistics of the base-ball field and the polite literature of the sporting column as the next most natural step. And why not? If education is preparation for life it is surely proper to recognize those great arts that now attract so much public attention and produce artists whose incomes mount up beyond the dreams of avarice of the professors of the Universities that are not on the Carnegie foundation. -

The introduction of many of these newer subjects, which some are pleased to regard as constituting a new education, is due to a change in the point of view as to what education really means. Even when giving instruction from text-books formed the main feature of much of school work there was in the background of the teacher's consciousness an impression, which by many a teacher was translated into action, that such instruction was not the be-all and end-all of their work, that mental growth and the formation of character were higher interests that should demand the attention of every teacher. But a change of view as to the subjects of instruction came when the child's education began to be considered not merely in relation to his own development as an individual, but also with reference to his fitness for work in connection with others in society, when, in short, education came to be regarded as a means of fitting men and women for social service. The old subjects of instruction that had dominated the schools so long were declared to be wanting when tested by the measure of practical utility, because here and there were found scholarly men, graduates of Universities, gold medalists, who were not practical, not adaptable in business, and their lack of business capacity was attributed to the unpractical kind of education they had received. Yet the teachers and the teaching of the old subjects turned out men who did things, and did them well, and it would be as reasonable to

conclude that they were successful because of the inspiration they had received from their training in the schools and colleges. Looking at the question from both sides, we may arrive at the conclusion reached by the author of "Letters from a Self-made Merchant to his Son," that "a College doesn't make fools; it develops them. It doesn't make bright men; it develops them;" and that "anything that teaches a boy to think and to think quickly, pays; anything that teaches a boy to get an answer before the other fellow gets through biting his pencil, pays." At any rate this seems to be the view now held by leaders in the business world, among whom college-bred men are becoming more and more in demand.

It is now generally agreed that all subjects of instruction must be judged by the results they accomplish towards fitting men and women to share in the promotion and enjoyment of all that is best, truest, most elevating in society; and no subject or method that is not inconsistent with this view of education may be considered unsuitable for the schools. It must not be overlooked that instruction in this or that subject must still be the means through which the higher aims of education are attained. To be the child's mentor and guide in the process of acquiring knowledge must be the direct aim of the teacher. The strength of the mental and moral fibre the child gains in the process, and the sort of character he develops, must be an incident of the teaching, and dependent upon the methods of instruction and the personality of the teacher.

Those who have faith to believe that from the changing views as to subjects and methods of instruction substantial progress must follow, will accept the practical trend of modern education as a progressive stage. But, with the assurance of superiority that marks the ardent advocates of a new gospel, practical subjects are being pressed upon public attention with an insistence which tends to produce the impression that the chief, if not the only aim of education is to teach boys and girls how to get on in the world. A man who is to enjoy and help forward what is best in society must possess a manhood that is of infinitely greater value than his occupation, and if he is not so educated that every faculty of his being is profitably employed for himself or others, he is not properly educated at all. How a man employs his leisure, if he has a fair proportion of it, when his business, his occupation, or his professional work does not press upon him, affords a fair criterion

of what a man really is. I do not refer, of course, to those people, too numerous, I fear, who seldom find time to relax, except to enjoy the sweet doing-nothing, and whose conception of Heaven would naturally be a place where one can have a long, restful, refreshing sleep. I believe that if the leisure time of the workers of the world were properly spent there would be a marked change for the better in criminal statistics. It is important, therefore, and all the more necessary to counteract in this age the dwarfing influence of intense specialization in the trades and occupations, that the studies that make for culture, whose value cannot be measured by their money-making power, should still have a large place in all departments of education.

One department of educational work, the Kindergarten, has pressed its way to general recognition, and its success in this regard is partly due, no doubt, to the irresistible eloquence of many of its apostles. I am aware how dangerous it is to question its claims, so it is with some fear and trembling I ask if the results of a decade or more of kindergarten work in Ontario have fully justified the claims that, through the harmonious development of all the child's powers in the kindergarten, the child shows a superior intelligence in its subsequent course, observes more quickly and accurately, seizes upon ideas more readily, expresses itself more naturally, and is more amenable to discipline. The kindergarten, like other educational methods, must submit to examination, and be judged by what it has accomplished, and be prepared to make changes in its ways of working, when the right results are not obtained, lest, in the words of a recent writer, "it become dangerous by becoming mechanical." Some time ago, I made an inquiry among the first form pupils of the Jarvis Street Collegiate Institute in this city for the purpose of ascertaining to what extent the claims of the kindergarten appear to be justified. Of the 186 pupils present when I made the inquiry, 112 had taken the kindergarten course, and 74 had not taken it. At an early stage in the inquiry I thought I had made the discovery that the kindergarten girls and the non-kindergarten boys had the advantage, but when the inquiry was completed I came to the conclusion that no appreciable difference in the elements of character I have just mentioned could be noticed between those who had, and those who had not, taken the kindergarten course. When I am told that the nervous energy of the kindergarten teacher cannot stand the strain of more

than half a day's work with 25 children, while a teacher of a primary class, with nearly twice that number of children, can teach the whole day, I am forced to the conclusion that there is something wrong somewhere. The conditions that exhaust the nervous energy of the teacher must also produce some reflex influence upon the nervous system of the children. I am afraid that the methods employed to co-ordinate the play-instinct of the child and to bring out the expression of the child's self-activity now require too much activity on the part of the teacher, for, whether the fault begins with the kindergarten or not, and I am inclined to believe that it does, I am convinced that throughout the child's school course too much is done for him by the teacher, and, "to shame the boast that we are wiser than our sires," he comes to the end of his course possessed of no more self-reliance, self-initiative, or self-control than was possessed by the children of the pre-kindergarten period. Yet the kindergarten will have justified its existence if it should accomplish no more than to search out the children of the dark places in our cities, where their surroundings are physically and morally unclean, and for a few hours each day brighten their lives and reveal to them something of a nobler purpose in life that will lift their souls "to a purer air and a broader view;" and if, too, the sound principles upon which the kindergarten is based may be made to leaven and influence the methods of instruction carried on throughout the schools.

Both the kindergarten and the manual arts are now much in evidence in the frequent displays of the results of the work of both these departments of instruction. The mother who approved of the kindergarten because her child was taught there to make pretty baskets missed the true object of the child's training. Exhibitions of the finished product of the manual training room are equally apt to produce wrong notions as to the main objects of such training. They also tend to produce a distorted perspective as to relative values. Place a fancy box made by a manual training pupil by the side of a translation of half a dozen of the odes of Horace, and the box-maker would win the applause of the many. Yet, unterrified by President Stanley Hall's recent fulmination against the dead languages, which he describes as "so terribly dead they are not even ghosts of ghosts, shadows of shadows, intangible, evanescent, unreal, ghastly, ghostly tongues," I gather myself from under the ruins caused by the crash of his thunder-

bolts, and, peeping out from among the tombs, I venture to confess that I am ghostly enough to believe that there is more intellectual discipline in translating the odes than in making the box.

Closely connected with, if not consequent upon, the addition of subjects to the curricula of the schools and colleges, has come the movement for more intense specialization. The recognition of a class of specialists in our High Schools has not proved to be an unmixed blessing. It has had a tendency to narrow the teacher's interest in his pupils and cause him to look upon the teaching of his subject as the all important thing, without regard to other subjects of study, and often without regard to that all-round development which constitutes real education. The intense scholarship of the specialist is, of course, necessary in the colleges, and even there the evil effects are seen in the elimination, at too early a stage, of nearly every subject that does not belong to the student's special course. Until the end of the second year the college course should be a broad, general one. This is especially necessary in the case of those who intend to become teachers. In many cases the college graduate has but little more knowledge of any subject outside his specialty than he had when he matriculated. Such a narrow course is very unsatisfactory, and badly adapted for those who are preparing to teach in our Secondary Schools. In the new Department of Education provision is made for prospective teachers in our secondary schools to study education both as a science and as an art, and to enable them by observation and practice to get an insight into the best methods of teaching the several subjects. But this will not suffice to make efficient teachers, unless a broader college training is required of them than is now provided in any of the honor courses, which are bound to attract the more ambitious students.

The general condemnation of examinations is another case of the pendulum swinging to the opposite extreme. There have been examinations of a kind that cannot be too strongly condemned; but examinations of the right kind conducted under proper conditions are an important factor in education, as a means of stimulating the pupil, of training his judgment, and of helping him to classify and correlate his knowledge. They are a means of self-discipline, and a healthy boy or girl who cannot answer on paper some question based on the subjects he or she has been studying, must be lacking in some fibre which the bracing effects of an examination

will help to supply. Because instances are quoted of alleged injurious effects of examinations upon persons of highly sensitive organizations, or persons not in good health, they have been denounced as destructive to the nerves of children; whereas, if a strict enquiry were made, it would be found that most of the cases of nervousness that lay claim to our sympathy are merely excuses for ignorance of the subject. Until we can discover an X-ray process which will enable us to read mental impressions, I am afraid that we cannot dispense with examinations; and even if that time should come, we ought, in the interests of the persons examined, to retain them as a preparation for the duties of a life where men and women are continually undergoing the test of examinations. I am aware that examinations are by no means a perfect test of the student's knowledge, and cannot be in any respect a test of much that true education must mean; but I believe they may be so conducted as to afford a fair criterion of the amount of knowledge the student has acquired, which, after all, must furnish the basis for all education.

In a recent article by Ossian Lang, on the rewards teachers receive, he says, "The missionary spirit, the teaching instinct, the love of children, the desire to help others, the faith that through the education of the young they are helping to make the world brighter and sweeter—these are the real *stimuli* that supply our schools with good teachers." It will be observed that among the "*stimuli*" enumerated no mention is made of financial rewards, which, poor at all times, have not kept pace with the increasing wealth of the country, or with the rewards offered for services, less exacting, in other occupations. The low salaries offered, and the readiness of trustees to accept mere boys and girls with characters still unformed, and with so little appreciation of professional ethics that they did not hesitate to underbid teachers of wider experience, have had the effect of forcing many of the older teachers out of the profession. In these days of the apotheosis of youth we find a tendency to restrict the period during which a teacher is supposed to be capable of doing effective work. At an age when a lawyer's judgment has just matured sufficiently to entitle him to consideration for a judgeship, or at an age when a doctor's experience qualifies him to change from a visiting to a consulting physician, the teacher would be set aside as too old for effective service. I have no doubt that in many such cases teachers

are themselves responsible for this view of the period of their usefulness. What marks a man's age at any rate? Some men are born old, some achieve age, and some have age thrust upon them, and in this, as in most other cases, it is the middle class in which the choice spirits are found—those whose services continue to be most effective for the longest time. A man's age should not be measured by years, but by the active interest he takes in affairs, by his responsiveness to new ideas, and by his readiness to adapt himself to changing conditions. When a teacher can no longer satisfy these tests, and is about to vegetate, may I be pardoned for repeating the stale jests, "Let him be oslerized; let him be appointed to the Senate of Canada." I do not know of any occupation or profession in which experience counts for so little as in the teaching profession. The experienced doctor or lawyer is preferred to the beginner because of his experience, and commands fees that come to the young practitioner only in dreams; but the apprentice teacher may outbid the master-workman and secure his place, and the salary of the experienced teacher is seldom double that paid to the beginner. These things ought not so to be. There should be an effort made to have School Boards throughout the Province adopt the principle of allowing to teachers of experience entering their services a fair increase over the initial salary paid to beginners.

Partly to low salaries and partly to other causes that have made teaching unattractive to men, must be attributed the rapid increase in the number of women who have become teachers. There was not, I believe, one woman teaching in the rural schools of the county where I taught forty years ago. Now nearly eighty per cent. of the teachers in that county are women, and that is about the proportion of women teachers in the Public Schools of the Province. Of late years there seems to be a tendency to have more men teachers, especially over the older boys in the higher classes, and that, too, without any disparagement of the women who are, indisputably, the best for boys as well as girls during that period when a boy likes to be petted, and put to bed, and tucked up by his mother. But when a boy feels himself no longer a child, and resents being a mother's pet, and wants to imitate his father's ways, even to the tilt of his hat, and sometimes, unfortunately, even to the tilt of his cigar, he should be largely under the instruction and control of men teachers. But I may be told that what is sauce for

the gander, in this case, is also sauce for the goose, and that the logical conclusion is, that the girls, on arriving at the corresponding period of life, should be largely under the instruction and control of women. I accept the conclusion, and I do so, notwithstanding the fact that in all my experience I have taught in none but mixed schools, and have never had any serious cases of discipline, and have seldom been obliged even to administer a rebuke because of any breach of discipline arising from the mingling of boys and girls in the same class-rooms. On that ground, therefore, I have no cause of objection to co-education. But in spite of all that may be urged in favor of co-education in advanced classes, I am being driven more and more to the conviction that we have been making a mistake in forcing upon our girls the same course of study that we consider most suitable to fit our boys for their life-work. The introduction of Domestic Science and Domestic Art into our schools is, I believe, only one indication of a growing feeling in the community that the advanced courses of study for our boys and girls should be differentiated to suit their different temperaments and the different purposes for which they are being educated. The training of girls for commercial or industrial pursuits should be secondary and incidental to a few, and not even the main object of their education; for it is as true to-day that "woman is not undeveloped man but diverse," as it was at the time when Tennyson's prince won his suffragette princess within the walls of that violated sanctuary over the entrance of which was written the unavailing threat, "Let no man enter in on pain of death."

I have indicated some of the tendencies in our education and I enter a plea for moderation. While we welcome new ideas that require us to revise our methods and to formulate new standards, let us hold fast to that which is good in the old. The whole truth is not to be found in the creed or theories of any one man or set of men. Truth is many-sided and reveals itself in many ways, "lest one good custom should corrupt the world." The mile-stones that mark the path of the world's progress mark also the burial places of theories, which, at their origin, were acclaimed by their advocates as possessing in themselves the power to renovate society. These theories did not wholly die, but an important part of them evaded the funeral rites, and, added to the general stock of human knowledge, have been influencing the thought and actions of succeeding generations. It is our duty to approach the investigation

of new theories of education in the spirit of seekers after truth, and with a desire to place in the front rank the things that have the highest value; and if each one of us, in his own way seeking to discover and exalt what is best, can add anything to the sum of human knowledge and human happiness, we also may be able to say, "*Non omnis moriar.*"

HON. R. A. PYNE'S ADDRESS.

Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen: I assure you I feel it a great privilege to be here to-night, and to be permitted to say a few words to the Inspectors and Teachers, in fact to the Ontario Educational Association. It is perhaps superfluous for me to say that the present Government, of which I have the honor to be a member, take deep interest in the teachers of this Province. In the pursuance of the policy upon which we started out in our endeavors to improve educational conditions in this Province, our very first attention was given to the teacher. You may have fine school buildings, with magnificent equipment, but you cannot achieve great results, such as we all hope and look for, without good teachers. We started out in the belief that the teaching profession of this Province would appreciate that part of the policy of the Government. In order to improve the status and condition of the teacher, it became necessary to increase the facilities and opportunities for professional training. We have started along this line, and soon I hope to see four additional Normal Schools in this Province. We are convinced that some additional inducements must be offered to you in the way of remuneration, and if we are going to give the people of this Province better trained teachers, surely the people of Ontario will respond by increasing the salaries of teachers and inspectors. When thinking on this subject I was reminded of a remark made by Hon. Joseph Chamberlain when addressing his constituents in Birmingham on his pet subject—Preferential Tariff within the British Empire. He said he hoped to see the day when, not only in the British Isles, but in every British Colony, he would see motto with these few words—"Let us buy from one another." I hope we are not far distant from the day in this Province when we will change

that motto a little and have these few words—"Let us help one another." Let the Provincial authorities and the County authorities and the Township authorities and the Section authorities join hand in hand, and I am sure the burden will be very light on the whole Province, and we will accomplish that most desirable object of paying teachers better salaries, the keeping of them in the Province. Instead of educating them for the far West or for the United States, as we have been doing in the past, we will make the profession a permanent one, into which people will be glad to enter, and we will retain in the teaching profession the mature minds now showing a tendency to leave it. As you know, there are many perplexities and embarrassments of one kind or another in connection with education in this Province. You find as here, in every State in the Union, in England, and all other countries, a great desire to improve educational conditions. Let me say a word, in passing, regarding what we are trying to do in this Province in the text-book matter. The question has been before us now for a little time, but I trust and hope that we see a way by which we are going to improve the books and give them to the people at a reduced price. On this text-book matter I have had dreams—I will not say nightmares—of a great Canadian National Series of Readers. I believe if we had the same Canadian Readers used in this and every other Province, we would do much to unify us as Canadians by including the same loyalty, the same love of home, the same Canadian patriotism throughout the entire Confederation. Whether we will ever realize that dream or not I do not know, but this I can say, that we are in correspondence and negotiation with the different Provinces with a view of harmonising ideas and possibly becoming unanimous on some series of National Readers. I just mention this to you as educationalists, who, I know, take a deep interest not only in our own Province, but in all Canada, feeling the same love for Canada and for all Canadians, as I do—for I had the good fortune to come from British parents. (Applause). The last few years have wrought great changes in every walk of life—in the medical profession, of which I happen to be a member, in educational work, and in every other direction. When efforts are made to improve these conditions, then we meet the great difficulties of which I spoke; and changes can only be brought about after a struggle and some! times after a long time. In educational matters you cannot see

to-morrow the advantage of the changes made to-day. These may not be realized for five or seven or ten years; and we should always remember this in dealing with educational problems. That celebrated Canadian, Dr. William Osler, who is now Professor of Medicine in Oxford University, strikingly showed in a recent lecture how rapidly the practice of medicine was changing. He had written several books, but the latest one always superseded its predecessors and was a better book. He stated that the changes in medical practice were never ceasing, never ending; and in illustration he referred to the case of a neurotic lady, which had baffled all consultants, and he advised his students to diagnose the mental and psychic side of the patient as well as the physical conditions. In the case under review he advised care in collecting information as to just how many of the lady's husband's relatives had been living with her for the past few years. An admirable illustration of rapidly changing educational conditions is to be found in the recent experiences of New York City. A large body of people there were opposed to what they called the fads and frills—Domestic Science, Manual Training, Art, Music, and all this sort of thing; and they created such a rebellion that the question was submitted to popular vote, and by a large majority the fads and frills were left in the schools. In less than six months another plebiscite of the very same people was taken, and this time it was said that the fads and frills were consuming all the time while the great basis of education was being neglected; so the fads and frills went out of the curricula of New York City, to be followed again in about six months with another popular vote of that great metropolis, when the fads and frills were restored to the schools of that city. These continuous changes resemble the changing of day into night, and they cannot be prevented. I suppose it is the proper thing in educational matters that those great changes should be brought about. This Province is now being looked upon as likely to become the great industrial and commercial Province of the Dominion, blessed as we are with the numerous waterpowers which it is believed will be made to turn every wheel of industry in Ontario. Yet there is a phase of education that has been greatly neglected in this Province and in Canada; I refer to technical training. If we look to the United States or to the countries in the Old World we see what a stupendous task it is going to be to give the proper and necessary

industrial training to produce the great results we hope for in the future. Just one word on examinations. Recently it has been said that the Entrance Examination has been interfered with. I want to say that the High School Entrance Examination has not been touched in any way, but in the course of time it has grown to be really the Public School Leaving Examination. It is a very serious and a most complex question, and I trust that while you are in session you will devote some attention to it, and if you pass resolutions upon the subject that will come to the Department let me say that, glad as we always are to get information of any kind that is going to help in improving conditions, I wish you would attach to the resolutions the reasons you have to give for passing them. That would help us very much. On behalf of the Government, and as head of the Education Department, it gives me very great pleasure to welcome you to the Capital of the Province. I trust that your stay will be one of pleasure to yourselves, and that your deliberations will be not only of great benefit to you personally, but of great advantage to the Province which you so well and ably represent. The work in which you are engaged is really that of the nation-builders of this great Province. You are the ones who are moulding the characters of the children of to-day, who are the men and women of the future. You have a great opportunity. You have a very difficult task. But I say to you, as has been said to many a missionary who felt that he had a call to go into the vineyard and do the work: If your recompense is not here in money, it is in having done your duty.

DR. FALCONER'S ADDRESS.

R. A. Falconer, LL.D., President of the University of Toronto, said:—Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen: It is in no perfunctory spirit that on behalf of the University I welcome you within this hall and to all the privileges that the University can give you through your meetings this week. We recognize in the University that your work is a preliminary necessity for our work, and that our work can only build profitably in so far as your work is also profitable. It is well that at the beginning of this session of meetings we should have had such an interesting

and comprehensive address as the President of the Association has given us this evening; and I congratulate the Association on this auspicious opening—not only upon the large numbers who are here together, but on the way in which you have been presented with problems that are old and yet that are ever new. At the end of your year's work it is most fitting that you should come together to review what has been done, and by a comparison with others to learn new methods and perhaps to contribute towards others. We grow by our experience and by our interchange of experience. There is no very clearly buoyed channel into our profession. There are no maps drawn for us by others in which all the dangers have been marked out. Nor are there any very clear sailing directions which if we follow we must inevitably reach our destination. Our pathway is somewhat misty. There are, it is true, certain general statements as to currents and shoals; but one by one, through our hard experience, we pick our way into our success in our profession as teachers. And this opportunity of comparing our success and our failures with those of others ought to be a large educational factor in our lives. If any of you have ever had the good fortune of sailing the high seas in a full-rigged ship you may have had, among other rather uneventful experiences, that of lying close by another ship in a calm, and you may have seen the captains exchanging information as they stood the one near the other. Possibly this illustration is not altogether inept for the position in which we are during these meetings this week. In the calm that intervenes after our winter's work we can exchange information and gather help the one from the other. In such a gathering as this there is of course a great variety of teachers; men of great experience and women of great experience; others who are only entering upon their work. Some there are who have chosen for themselves courses as specialists; others who are looking to teaching in a general way a number of subjects. Each has much to give the other. As we heard to-night in the address that your President gave, the specialist himself runs many dangers. There are rocks in his course that he must avoid. The specialist may gain a thorough mastery of some subject. He should. But it is just possible that the subject may be too narrow, and that—if I may use the word—his mastery may be too intense. It is possible, of course, that great things may be done by a specialist. Men of

one idea accomplish much. But men of one idea are often extremely narrow, and certainly they are often very uninteresting. Now, an education should not be uninteresting; and the specialist has to guard himself against being so centred in his own department as to lose interest in other things. A gathering such as this contributes interest to those who have devoted themselves to the one subject and who may run the danger of losing to some extent the sense of proportion. Many of us look back to a teacher who had a great reputation for learning, but it was extremely disappointing. You may have gone to a professor's class at the beginning of a term, and he may have mapped out for you a most interesting course, how his subject would develop; and you anticipated with great pleasure the months that you would be under his tuition. But as this learned man unfolded his subject month after month you began to realize that he was emphasizing things that should not be emphasized; that you were becoming overwhelmed in the multitude of details; and the session may have closed without any very clear impression of his total work, and with you feeling that the man was not able to emphasize those things that were of chief importance. We are not simply a bundle or parcel of specialists brought together by social, political or other ties. We are men and women with subjects, and yet with contributory interests; men and women living together, and seeking in our common life to educate those who come under our control. In fact there are dangers that specialism is bringing, not only to the teacher but also to the scholar. There are in all of us, I presume, the vices of our virtues; and the vice of specialists is over-specialization—loss of the sense of proportion. In the child who is well taught there should emerge the power of gauging things that are really important. His success in after life will depend not on his information, but on his ability to know what the main point in a thing is; his ability to sift; his ability to achieve the things that really count; his ability to lay his stress where stress should be put; and not merely a large receptive ability that gathers in information and is not able to estimate that information at its true worth. (Applause.) That is the danger of the specialist.

On the other hand, there are many among you who teach a variety of subjects, and you are not to be commiserated in any way because you do teach a variety of subjects. Most of us can

look back to some good teacher who taught quite a number of subjects to us. We can remember how every subject that he taught he illuminated. It was our good fortune, perhaps, to have had one teacher of that sort—a teacher who did for us far more, possibly, than specialists who had not the power of teaching. And so it is not merely the few or the many subjects that you teach that will give you your success, but it is your ability to handle the material that you have to impart in such a way as to develop the latent powers of your pupil. However, there is here also a danger, and I believe we are apt in this country particularly to encounter it. As a people we Canadians are quick, of alert intelligence, very receptive. We can master facts, and we turn everything rapidly to some practical result. There is, however, in our education, and in our life as a whole, something of the same fault that there is in our agriculture—we often try to cultivate too much ground, and we should work for more intensive agriculture rather than more extensive. Where we have to master many subjects and teach a number we should be constantly on our guard lest there be in our pupils a shallow readiness, a quickness at picking up details, and a forgetfulness that mastery, efficiency, thoroughness, are really essential to our success in future life. When we are told by those from other countries that our intellectual life is not as deep and our artistic appreciation not as keen as those of older civilizations we are often apt to justify ourselves by saying that our country is young, and that we have not yet had time. That excuse will not serve us very long. We are beginning to get years; we are beginning to grow mature; and we must be prepared to take our rank with others not merely in the way of practical aptitude, which no one will question, but also in real power of thought, in real ability to handle things thoroughly, in real power of intellectual, artistic, musical and every other discernment. We must aim at more thoroughness. We must aim at developing our faculties more thoroughly. Intensiveness, then, I believe, should be one of our purposes in our education. At the same time, as I welcome you here, and under such auspicious circumstances to-night, I should like to say that, personally, I feel, in spite of the many discouragements that we in the teaching profession have, in spite of the many difficulties that face us, there is ground for good courage. Dr. Embree has brought out several of those discouragements. We

know them. We are apt to think from time to time that our work as teachers is not appreciated. I know that only too well, and I believe that on our part we should seek to show the people the necessity of our profession and that we should become more worthy of it. And yet, although that is true, as one looks over the situation and looks back upon the past, and considers the forces at work in our civilization, we must be optimists. At least I am an optimist, and for this reason—I have absolute faith that the democracy on which our Anglo-Saxon civilization is built will in time triumph and prove to be a magnificent temple of humanity. There are in this democracy many discouragements. There have been many failures; many, many blunders; but slowly and surely we are growing better and better—(Hear, hear)—though we have many a set-back year after year. As you watch the tide, it seems often to go out; yet it is the waves chiefly that are flowing back—the tide as a whole is rising. And so it is in the democracy. Our humanity is improving. One reason why I am confident of that is that I have absolute faith that powerful ideas will in the long run be victorious; that the good must prevail; that our democracy will grow by the innate power of what it is built upon; and that mere brute force cannot in the end conquer. (Applause.) That is the reason why I believe in our democracy. (Hear, hear.) And at the heart of democracy there lie these two great powers—the force of Education and the force of Religion. It is because I am so convinced of this that I think that we who teach should set our faces to the rising sun and believe that it will rise even though it may seem at times under a cloud. A better day is coming, and our position as educators must with the improvement of the democracy be recognized more and more. That is my own firm belief, and that is the basis of my own hope. (Applause.) But, ladies and gentlemen, the obligation of bringing in this better day rests largely on us who teach. We have to prove to the world in which we live that our education is of supreme value; and in the long run our intelligent, reasonable people must come to recognize the thing that is valuable. Give them time; give them time. However, if we ourselves go about our work in a half-hearted way, if we have very little belief in the things that we teach, we cannot expect that the people round about us, who know less about education than we do, will set a higher value on it than we allow them to suppose that

we do. There are in education, just as in religion and in social life, many insincerities; and insincerity, wherever it is found, brings with it some bane that takes a long time to work itself out of society. What is the great insincerity in education? It is the insincerity of the man or the woman who professes something intellectual that he or she has simply not wrought out into his or her life. There are some teachers who seem to live two absolutely separate lives. These are not homogenous. When you meet such persons you can not judge that what they have been doing in the school has had any real effect upon their inmost thought and their inmost being. Take for instance the teacher of literature. How many there are who profess literature, yet who know very little about literature? How many there are who imagine that it all consists in a certain knowledge of facts. Every teacher should have on him the Hall-mark of his profession, and should, in a certain sort, be a standardising of his subject in the community in which he lives. The teacher should be recognized as the one to whom the people look when they want to know what literature is; what the scientific spirit is; what the moral life is that he or she has been teaching the child to try to live. As long as there is the insincerity of a separateness between the profession and the life, so long will the public without stand and ask, "Well, why should we support such teachers as those?" That, then, is the great burden that rests upon us as teachers. Wherever we teach, whether it be in the University or the School, wherever we are, when men and women meet us they should recognize that the profession we have is a profession that we went into because we believed we could do service for humanity in it, and because thereby we speak to our fellows and give them something of which we know the value. As we realize these things we shall get what we deserve—the honor that comes from our fellows when they recognize that men and women are seeking with their best endeavors to impress upon those about them and upon the children within their charge the ideals that they for themselves have discovered to be of the highest value.

THE MANUAL ARTS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

DR. JAMES PARTON HANEY, NEW YORK.

Twelve years ago, I heard for the first time a man well-known to you speak on "Children and Their Activities." Seldom had it been my fortune to listen to one as wise and witty, as genial and sympathetic. The speaker's knowledge of child-life was so broad and his insight so deep that his difficult subject cleared itself as if by magic. I felt as I listened the force of his appeal. Then a Director but newly appointed, his words stirred me keenly. Here was one, I felt, who might serve as inspiration. And since that time he has so served. I come to-day before an audience in which he sits as Chief Inspector of Schools for Toronto—as one who would recite a lesson learned, saying in no spirit of mock humility, "Master, it shall be yours to answer whether I have studied well or ill."

Education is an effort to relate the child to his environment and the arts of drawing, construction and design are means which have been developed to this end. But in the process we must remember that we are dealing with a child and not with an adult. Not always does our memory so serve us. It has taken us a long time to get away from the idea that the child is only a little man, though we have learned not to dress him as he was dressed when Rousseau was stirred to write his "Emile," in cocked hat, high heels and sword, in frilled shirt, knee-buckles and wrist-bands—a duplicate in little of what his elders were in large. We now see the child not as a little man, but as a changing being, one full of curious interests and instincts, full of movement, beauty loving, but always changing—mentally, physiologically changing before our very eyes.

Every child as he grows makes evident at different stages, different propensities. He seeks to aggrandize himself—to imitate others—to build things—to investigate them—to busy himself in play. These expressions we call instincts. There are many of them, but every one—self-seeking, constructive, curious—is part of a scheme of Nature aimed to conserve the interests of the boy and to cause him to be active in his own education. When, as

a mere toddler, the child seizes a pencil and seeks to draw, when he turns to his building blocks, and erects fair structures, when he chops with the scissors or dissects the interior of his drum, he is making evident Nature's effort to educate him. When he gathers with his mates in game or contest, he shows us the group spirit on the rise, when he hoards postal cards or stamps he shows us the collecting spirit growing in its turn. If we follow him closely we shall find that Nature has a school course of her own, a curriculum of activities in which the pupil is led through paths blazed by his interests, to a knowledge of his own ability and a knowledge of the world in which he lives. Not only does Nature demand that the child be given an opportunity to work with his hands, but she shows us through his liking for particular types of work, the very steps by which he can best be led to master his surroundings. She writes this curriculum in terms of interests and instincts and on every page prints an admonition that the worker be led to work creatively so that he may become an agent in his own development.

The more plainly we read this natural course of study the more plainly we realize that the school room duplicate which does not include hand work in different forms is ill-fitted for child training. With the great difference in children also forced upon our attention it has become plain that no one scheme of study, however wisely planned, can be satisfactory for any large group of pupils. Some work well with their heads, some with their hands. As boys are different so must the means of the training then be different.

Centuries before we had written speech; centuries before the shepherd kings emerged in the dawn of history, men spun with thread and fashioned vessels in clay; they patiently chipped their spear-heads of flint; they patiently hollowed their primitive stone mills. Through all these ages the community work revolved around constructive operations; the basal education of the race was in learning to work with the hands. The frills of education have come in since as man has evolved language, number and all methods of record. The manual arts have been the essentials of education for all time. Compared with the length of their service in the educational fields, Reading, Writing and Number are as things introduced but yesterday.

Yet, now and again in some attack upon modern education, its opponent will point to the sturdy product of the past and urge that a return be made to the course of study of the "Little Red School House." But, while such critic recognizes the strength of the boy trained under the older system he does not see that it was not the narrow and limited curriculum which gave the insight and the independence he praises. He fails, too, to see that work involving a study of processes—work which he now brands as a "fad"—stood as a most important element in the education of the old time pupil.

Of old, the boy's school training was brief in years; he was schooled, mayhap, in the famous little red house itself, but most of his education was gotten out of school. The studies he pursued were few, and much emphasis was placed upon formal drill, but for more than half the year he was out of school—busy on the farm or in the village shop. He knew at first hand all about the activities which circled round him. He helped to build shed and house; he helped to paint the dwelling and to set the lights in the windows; he was called on to care for animals—he knew their breeds and their values, their natures and their ailments. He saw, too, lengthy processes carried on from first step to completion. The boot to him was no mystery of leather, drawn from a cardboard box, but was a bit of construction which he had watched from the very moment that the tan-pit opened to receive the hide until the village shoemaker withdrew the last from the completed form.

Thus the school training of our old time boy was limited and intermittent, but his education was broad and was continuous. It was an education which arose from contact with things at first hand; it was an education largely manual. It dealt with many tools and many materials and through it the boy developed on both mental and motor side, through it he grew keen, and resourceful, skillful and self-dependent.

Recent years have seen many changes in the school curriculum; the length of school life has increased and is increasing; the boy now spends more months in school each year and more years in school than formerly. The school now essays to take entire charge of the education of the pupil, where before it dealt with the smaller and simpler part. It is still our custom to say that the boy gets more of his education out of school than in it,

but this once true in fact is true no longer. Meanwhile the country's needs have changed, more subjects must now be known and more time be given to their teaching. The pupil leads a business life lasting nine or ten months in the year; he is busy with school and small opportunity is open to him to take part in community activities or even to see them, for while there has been a great industrial development in the country the various crafts once visible on every side have disappeared; the tanner now works in secret; the loom stands no more where it can be seen. Local industries have been swallowed up, and trades once carried on in the open are now developed in factories barred with "No Admission" signs.

We have seen a wonderful change in our social organization, and while our older system of training succeeded in some ways better than the new, it is to be remembered that it was the system that succeeded and not the school. The superior grasp of a boy trained under the older system was not due to his few months' of schooling, but in a large measure to social insight and vocational bent, to education in initiative and self-dependence which he got out of school under masters as critical as any he met in the class room. If we would square education with its definition and make our children familiar with their environment, we must place the manual arts in the school course to give to pupils that knowledge of things they once got without the school room walls.

To interpret to the child his surroundings is to make plain to him the social content of education. This is to be gotten not from books, but from actual experience—from working in a common cause at things drawn from the life of the community. The arts supply this knowledge at first hand. Primarily they dealt with activities; with the making of things. It is not difficult to have such making reflect processes drawn from the community needs—the construction of shelter—the procuring of food and the making of clothing. So developed they may be made to reveal social situations, the relation of one activity to another, and the manner in which typical processes have grown in response to necessity.

On the wall behind me, you will see an illustration of my statement. Here is a little tepee made with a bit of brown paper and decorated with a quaint Indian design by a little seven-year-old. This was done while he was reading the story of Hiawatha

to make the tale more real to him, because as a small city urchin he knew nothing of "dark, pine forests" and of pointed tepees. Here again is a little wagon made by another pupil of the primary grades. This was done while he was studying transportation—studying how food and people come to the city and how the roaring clamor of the streets is made up of wagon on wagon, each but the extension of a shop. Transportation was but one of the centers which this boy studied; he and his sister followed many others—dealing with the shops, the parks, the harbor and the home. Through this study their surroundings were made plain to them—the city was interpreted. Every one of these drawings and pieces of construction reflects a social situation and every one called in its creation for some independent thought and action on the part of its maker.

The manual arts show to the child the value of joint work in the making of products which call for the labor of a number of hands. This may be seen on the primary sand table, where is built up town or hamlet of little separate houses fashioned by different children, or some farm with its farm house, barns and out-buildings. It may be seen also in the higher grades where a dozen boys have worked together to build a bob-sled for themselves, or a bookcase for the school library. Work of this kind lends to the communal spirit. It reveals to every pupil the fact that he is a social unit—one whose aid is essential to make the whole scheme a success.

Through this work there cannot but be given a strong, constructive bent to every worker in it. Materials have constantly to be employed; plans must be made and then developed through a dozen operations. Working in this wise the child sees himself not as a mere pupil at school, but as a member of society, with part of the work of that society upon his shoulders. This industrial bent is of high importance to us. We are an industrial people. Eight out of every ten boys who go through the public schools must later make their living with their hands. To the state's interest is it, that these boys get through their years of schooling ideas and aims which shall be other than clerical.

For many years our educational scheme has been colored by the demands of the commercial world. Our aims have been in large measure set by the ideals of the Counting House. As a great industrial people, however, it is necessary that we now include

other aims and other ideals. This does not mean that the elementary school should be made an industrial school, but it does mean that those who are going to lead an industrial life should, in their preparation for that life, be not inclined away from it or taught to regard labor with the hands as of less dignity and of less importance than labor with the head.

If the arts are to play their proper part in school, they must be made an integral part of the school work; they must be used in exercises of interest and of value to the child,—not allowed to dangle as a fringe on the edge of the school curriculum. Drawing and design should be taught—not to make artists of the children, but to heighten their skill of hand and to give them that power of discrimination which we call taste. This is an education not in art, but through art. It seeks to make the pupil sensitive to line and form and pattern and its effect is not only a growth of appreciation of the picture well-painted, but also of appreciation in matters most practical, the well-designed letterhead; the well-decorated shop window; the well-proportioned machine.

The teaching in all the lower grades should be done by class teachers and not by specialists. The class teacher knows better than the specialist what exercises may best be developed by her pupils. Aid she certainly should have from a well-trained supervisor, but if the arts are to be intimately related with the rest of the curriculum they must not be taught by some special teacher, who aims to segregate them and to magnify their importance by their isolation. In the primary grades the work should gather around varied centers of interest selected by the class teacher. I have seen such a one plan her work for months in advance around the seasons; the holidays: the experiences of the children in the home, the shops and in the school. The lessons in number, in language, in nature study, in drawing, in writing, in construction and design all should have their focus in each center as it is developed.

In the intermediate grades the work may be made more technical. The children now experience a rise in the critical sense. They are willing now to practice and re-do an exercise that it may be done better. This is now the time for drill. In the earliest years the child strives to submit every new subject to sensory tests of observation. His vocabulary is limited and he

turns to drawing and making as the readiest means of expression. From nine to twelve his interests multiply and his constructive desires seek pleasure in making things that will "go." From now on he develops rapidly. Adolescence ensues with its striking changes in his physical and mental make-up. The sensory period is left behind and the sensitive approaches. The child's interests multiply, sympathy becomes possible in a sense not true before and the pupil can be brought to admire and appreciate things hitherto beyond his understanding.

We are prone to regard each phase of our school work only as a preparation for the next. Each grade makes ready for that which succeeds. In the language of Henderson—"We pass "from a vestibule to a vestibule of a vestibule." If we would do away with this eternal preparation and make school life thoroughly alive; if we would have our children with their hearts in their work, then we must make the school, not an endless beginning of life, but rather, life itself. The exercises made in the arts should be real things, needed things, things capable of actual service and used until they disappear—worn out through constant handling. Formal steps to develop any process must be followed by an opportunity for free expression; for a chance; that is, to do original work in which the new process appears. The child must learn to make a neat drawing or model, but this, however attractive it may seem, has served small purpose if it has not the child's own thought in it. Conscious power comes when the products of labor are tangible and useful, and skill is best gained when the maker himself demands it.

It will be gathered from what has been said that text-books do not exist to point out the very exercises which would carry forward such a course in the arts. One who would employ these subjects best must devise his own scheme of co-ordination. In this lies a great virtue, for the course of study a teacher so devises possesses the very essence of individuality. It has been made to meet the needs of a particular class in a particular neighborhood. From the activities of school and community its exercises have been drawn. Household industries, local trades, gardening, building, the care of animals have all served as suggestive centres for the development of many exercises, not in the arts alone, but in the whole round of the curriculum. Thus developed, the manual work makes for the vocational

life. It offers the best preparation for such a life by bringing the child early into contact with plans; by causing him to deal constantly with tools and by leading him to discover in himself what power resides in the cunning of his fingers. As work it is developmental and social, and the purpose of its training is general. The arts may be studied with advantage by every boy whether or not he is going on to a vocational career. Doctor, lawyer, and minister will profit from them no less than artist, business man or artisan.

Different situations will evidently make necessary different forms of development. Even in the rural ungraded school, opportunity opens for good work despite the differences in the ages of pupils and the limited possibility of equipment. Few tools will suffice, and with the clay bank, the wood yard and the grass-grown meadows, one need never lack for material. If the teacher has but grasped the spirit of the arts, she can bring rushes, clay and unplanned bits of wood into the school room and with them lead the way in the illustration of processes which show how man,—the thumbd one, the builder,—has grown through his constructive work. The teacher of such a school often hesitates to introduce hand work, fearing her own technical shortcomings. To such a one it must be made plain that it is not the particular process which is important so long as the one chosen be a process which can be seen in its social setting in the life about the child.

Better than waiting inactive, the teacher ignorant of the arts should study weaving, modeling and wood-work with her pupils, learning their difficulties at first hand and enjoying with them the pleasure of surmounting each as it arises. Nor is such a one to be discouraged because an elaborate sequence of exercises cannot be maintained. Far more important is the continued making of needed things. A progressive increase in skill should of course be sought in all hand-work, but it is to be remembered that the order of development of exercises and the order of development of the child's interests are not necessarily the same. The means essential to success lie not in extensive equipment or formal order of models. Rather the secret rests in the intimacy of relation which can be developed between the needs and the interests of the workers and between the arts themselves and the other subjects of the school.

And now a word about the truant—that trying boy who is to be found in every school. The truant is a bi-product of an inefficient school system. Seen from one point of view he is a bad boy who will not stay in school to learn the lessons, which a wise school master has laid out for him. Seen from a different point, he is a boy forced out of school by those not wise enough to understand the expression of his instincts, or clever enough to plan his work so that his passion to busy himself in many occupations may serve to retain him contented to labor in his own behalf.

Once give the boy in school, work that appeals to him—then the problem of his retention is solved. Presented early and developed wisely, the manual arts are natural preventives of truancy. The problem of truancy is primarily a problem of interests. If we would solve it, we must know the instincts which lie behind all interests and must employ them skillfully to make the boy his own teacher; we must in this case turn again to see how Nature has planned her curriculum. To prevent truancy we must take the truant unawares. We must catch him early—and give him, through his work in school, some sense of the social value of the thing he is doing—of its necessity in the work of the world; of its importance to his own success. We must give him some sense of his own power in construction and through this an increase in self-respect, which will act as a moral mentor to keep him in school's good graces. And first and last we must make it plain that he who labors faithfully and skillfully with his hands is not less to be commended than is he of brilliant mind. We must give praise to the master craftsman and hold his followers in high honor in school.

Ever since the day of Comenius we have been trying to find some way by which the teacher shall teach less and the learner shall learn more. Is it not possible that in the arts we have discovered the very means to the much desired end? In them we have surely found things of inherent interest to the child—things in the doing of which he renders devoted service—things for the perfection of which he is willing to work overtime and joy in the service. In the arts we have a school instrument working miracles, quickening the senses of the dull and charming the wayward fancies of the errant. Those of you who know Kingsley's charming story of the "Water Babies" may see locked up in drawing, construction and design that power which distilled from

the great fairy who sat within the peace-pool. She, herself, expressed in words that which is the very essence of the arts; for when Little Tom ended his toilsome journey and found the great basin with its beautiful figure gazing down into the sea, he discovered not one busy snipping, fitting, joining, finishing, for all there swam away from her feet, countless thousands of new created beings. And the great fairy who could read Tom's disappointment smiled as she said, "You thought you were going to find some one very busy in making things." Tom nodded. "Ah," said she, I have found a secret far better than that—I have found how to make things make themselves."

EUROPEAN SCHOOLS.

JAMES L. HUGHES, TORONTO.

Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen: The greatest gift that America has yet given to civilization is the gift of the free school system. Europe gave us the best of our ideals concerning methods. Henry Barnard and Horace Mann gave the world the free Public School system. All countries have not all accepted it yet; we have not done so in this Province in all places—the High School system is not yet free throughout the Province. I hope the day is not far distant when we may accept the free school system for the High Schools as well as for the schools below. (Applause.) But while America gave this free system to the world, the European nations are extending this system much more broadly and much more deeply than we are yet. We have grasped the educational side of a school system; they have in many places grasped not merely the educational side but the vocational side. I was in Munich a year ago to-day, in Bavaria, for the purpose of studying the vocational system, the system of trade schools in that city. The little state of Bavaria has more of those trade schools than all America put together. The city of Munich itself has 42 free schools conducted by the municipality, in which the boys and the girls, after fourteen years of age, when they leave what we would call the Elementary Schools, receive a continuance of their education while they are at work in the various shops and institutions of the city. Every

boy who remains in Munich—I speak of the boys only—and who intends to devote his life to working in any trade or occupation, is compelled by law to leave his work three afternoons of each week and go for three hours of those afternoons to one of those Trade Schools, to his special Trade School. If he is to work in iron, for instance, he goes to a school where for three years he has a supplementary education in the specific work that he is to do during his life. He learns how the iron is taken from the earth; how it is transformed into all different types of iron and steel; he learns every process known to modern science for coloring steel, for instance, or for changing its quality, or for welding it. Everything that can be done to iron is revealed to him during the three years that he is taking his course, while at the same time he is working at his trade. That is a general outline of the work. If it is wood work it is just the same—he studies all kind of trees; he learns as much as can be taught him about the quality of the wood of all kinds of trees; he learns how to grow these trees so that he may become a forester by and bye if necessary; how to treat all kinds of wood, to do all kinds of things with them. They even train them to make silk out of the wood fibre in this school in Munich. But not only the young men who are going to take wood work or iron work; every man who works at any kind of work in Munich is trained to do it in a scientific way; has the fundamental principles and laws of his trade revealed to him, and has to do with his own hand all the stages of work that are explained to him during his course. Now, we in America and throughout the world have long recognized that it was right that we should help certain people in their vocational work. The lawyers, the doctors, the ministers, the teachers for some time, and more recently the engineers of the world, have had opportunities given to them to qualify them for their vocation. We have allowed all the children in most countries to have a free education in the Public Schools—what we call Public Schools—in the Elementary Schools; and in many places they are allowed a free education in the High Schools; but only a very small percentage of the people are allowed to go to High Schools. Those who wish to study languages, those who wish to study higher mathematics, literature, and so on to qualify themselves for any one of those five departments of life of which I spoke—law, medicine, ministry, teaching, engineering—they are allowed to go on and to take the higher course. In

America not quite one in seventy children who enter the schools graduate from the High School. What a farce it is to call our system a system at all, even if we allowed them to go through the High Schools without charging them anything for it! What a farce it would be to call that a system which would allow one in seventy to go through the higher education,—a free system of education! What reason can there be for giving the minister, the lawyer, the doctor, the teacher, the engineer, assistance to qualify himself for higher work, better work in his profession, that cannot be offered for giving the man who is going to work at his trade a better training for his profession? Has he not as good a right as any other man? Has not this boy of fourteen as good a right as any other boy to get from the State the opportunity of qualifying himself for his work? Why should so small a percentage of the people have this right for a more advanced education, and the men and the women who are going to be the workers of our country not have it? The people in Bavaria have said that every boy is to stand on an equality, and every boy is to have the fullest opportunity of giving himself the education he wishes to give himself—to qualify himself for his work in the world. Not merely a limited class, not any class; but that citizenship requires that he should be the best citizen possible, and that the State should give him the opportunity of fitting himself to be the best citizen he can be. I need not stop to discuss at all the difference between a trained workman and an untrained workman. In the product of his work that is manifest; in the amount of money he can earn for the support of himself and his family, to give them higher means of culture, that is manifest. As a mere matter of justice to every individual soul, a boy should have an opportunity to qualify himself to be the best he can be in his own department of work, for his own sake. And surely the boy should be the best he can for his country's sake; that is an easy proposition to prove. The man who is the finest for himself will be the finest for his state; and in Germany during the last few years they have erected more factories than in any other country in the world, because they are making more for the world now than any other country. In Germany I never got out of sight of tall chimneys—never at any time on any railroad—and they were nearly all new, not stained by weather, not stained by smoke, and most of them are working day and night. If we do not in our country afford our young men who are

to be our artisans an equal chance, there is no possibility of our continuing to compete with them. When I speak of our country I mean our Empire, the whole Empire, and not Canada alone. The English people have more money now than other nations because they have been accumulating it for years. To a certain extent they dominate the money market of the world. That cannot continue to be, if we look ahead, unless English people train their boys as well as the boys of other countries are trained; and those of us who know the English boys on our own streets know that those boys never had a chance to learn a trade properly. The boy of fourteen in an English city or town now goes out without a chance to work in a factory. He is not qualified. He may get some subordinate position as a messenger or to feed a machine, or some small work of that kind which is not developing him as an artisan, and by the time he is eighteen he has learned to smoke and drink a little, but he has not learned a trade; he has not qualified himself for learning a trade; he has not got a training which will enable him to be a thoroughly successful man in any trade whatever. And those poor fellows who come out here, and at whom we sometimes laugh, are pathetic sights, and their nation is to blame rather than the men. No such men come from Munich, and no such men will come from Munich in the coming days. Now, they do not propose to make those boys fully trained artisans by the time they are seventeen. Oh, no; they simply give them the processes by which they may shorten the time of their apprenticeship, and by which they may give themselves a very much higher standing in their trade than they could have had without that training. Why should we not in our country have a similar system? We have the Manual Training, in some places at any rate, beginning in the kindergarten, working through as they do in New York—as you saw explained here yesterday—working through all the grades up to the shop work, and then the shop work. Why should we not have beyond that a system of trade schools, if you like to call them so—a system of schools whereby the boys would have more specific training in the particular work that they intended to do so that by and by they could take their places properly in the great institution behind us here? The University here has recognised, and the Universities of the world have recognised the fact that there should be other courses than what were in other days called the culture courses; and we should have our High

Schools for the boys and the girls who are going to take any of those culture courses—in classics or sciences or mathematics or modern languages or music or art, or whatever they choose. Why not have High Schools specifically for the training of those boys and girls who are going to make their living as the workers of the world, as the producers of the world? That is the doctrine that they are practising now chiefly in Bavaria, and it is coming to be practised throughout Germany, and the English people are beginning to think of introducing it into England. They have had a fine system of Technical Schools in England for a long time, good institutions. The one in Manchester is second only to that great one at Charlottenburg near Berlin. But you go to one of those vast rooms fitted up with thousands and hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of exceedingly expensive machinery, and you will find only half a dozen students, sometimes less than that, during the day. They have them at night when the young men are tired after working all day. The English system is not comparable to the German system, and I studied both as fully as I could; that was the chief thing I went to Europe to study.

Now, lest it be supposed that I do not value the other training, and that I am advocating this to the exclusion of all, let me point out that if we take the great body of the boys and girls who, because they are going to work in shops are not allowed to take the specific training they need for their life work, if we give them that training in the life work, that will have no influence in closing up any of the High Schools or the Secondary Schools of any kind that we have in existence now. That will not in any sense interfere with the rights of the man who is going to be a minister or a lawyer or a doctor, or a woman who is going to enter any of those professions. They could go on as usual, more of them probably in future than at present. I am simply pleading that every boy and every girl should have equal rights, and be treated just as fairly and justly as those who are going to enter what we call the professions—if we may dignify our work as a profession, and I think we should always speak of it as a profession, because if we do the people will by and by do so too. (Hear, hear.) The fact that we have here a great technical training institution, the school of Practical Science, should interfere in no way with the ordinary school or with the Arts Department, or with the Faculty of Education, or any of the other departments. Those who are going to take the one would

not have taken the other, and so there is no interference. More than that, I quite agree with all those who claim that the development of the creative power of each individual child is the great purpose of education—the highest purpose of education, whether a man is going to be a minister, a lawyer, a doctor, an engineer, a teacher or a working man. The development of his special creative power should be the highest work of the school. And every boy has a special power. All the great developments of modern education are based on that one great central thought of reverence for the sacredness of the selfhood of the individual child; and when we get that idea clearly in our minds, then we know that the greatest thing we can do for a boy is to kindle him in the centre of his power, whatever that may be. Your centre and mine are not the same. Your selfhood and mine are not the same. Your individuality, or soul-hood if you like that name, is not the same as mine. You should achieve something for God that no person else in the world can achieve as well as you; so should I. And the greatest thing any man or series of men can ever do for you or for me is to put us through certain conditions and certain processes by which we reveal our powers. Yes, to them that is important, but infinitely more important that our special powers should be revealed to ourselves. No man ever achieves for God and the race what he ought to achieve until he is conscious of his power, until he understands what he was meant to do and to be, until he gets as far as he can a conception of what God meant when he created him, and the thought of God and plan of God that he represents. That is what the kindergarten was founded for, largely,—to enable every child to discover for himself his best power not at once, not when he is a little fellow, but to fill his life with the apperceptive centres of power so that as he grows he may understand his chief power and may get into the line of work that he was meant to work in. It is sometimes said that some men test the kindergarten by examinations. That could not be suggested anywhere out of Canada and England. We are the only two countries in the world which are so blinded by examinations as to talk about testing power by examinations in that way. I am sorry that our ideals, and the ideals of parents and the ideals of the children have been so degraded by the idea of examinations that it is very hard for us to get a conception of the higher ideal of soul-development, or of vocational training, either one, as we should understand

them. One of the principals of one of the Canadian Normal Schools, not in Toronto, said recently, "I can go into any class where there are kindergarten children and where there are others who are not kindergarten children, and I can pick out those who were trained in the kindergarten; not by examination of memory or any test that can be given in that way, but by their power in life."

I am prepared to be tested any time. Put 20 or 40 children in new conditions in which they were never placed before, with a new environment unfamiliar to all of them, and in ten minutes I can tell you the children who were trained in the kindergarten. If half of them were trained in the kindergarten and half of them never had any such training, I can tell you the children that were trained in the kindergarten by the way in which they will adapt themselves to their relationships, by the conceptions they will have of their new environment, by the processes that they will at once institute to transform that environment in harmony with their own conceptions. Surely that is what an ideal system ought to do; and surely we ought to begin in the right way. And on the other side, for the development of this great power, this special spiritual power that I speak of—the creative power of the individual, the original power of the individual, the self-directing power of the individual, the transforming and achieving power of the individual,—surely if that be our motive we should think what we mean by culture, and what culture may do. You cannot kindle all children by literature. A very large proportion of the race, at the present time at any rate, were not meant to be deep lovers of book learning. That is one of the awful blunders we made in the old days when we tried to make all children bookish children, not only in Public Schools but in High Schools. You may kindle some children by literature who could not be kindled in any other way, and they are good types when they are kindled; but only a small proportion of children can be stirred to the best of their lives by literature. You may kindle some children by science that could not be kindled by any other subject. You may kindle some by mathematics. Some people doubt that, but I am willing to admit that—that even by mathematics you may kindle some children. You may certainly kindle some by art who could never be kindled in any other way; some by music who could be kindled by no other special work; and you may kindle more by manual training than

by all the others put together, except art. Take the two arts, manual training and art as we speak of it, manual arts, you may kindle more by those two than by all the others put together. Why? Because God meant men and women to be productive, I believe. He meant the great body of the people to be producers, to be achievers, to be doing things, to be transforming conditions. Why, art and music and manual training are in the schools not for the economic advantages, but for the transforming advantages, for the opportunities afforded to develop the creative power of the children. Art, perhaps more than any other, will reveal that. Manual training—not trade schools, but manual training,—the foundation for trade schools, the foundation for any development—better than any other, I think, can reveal to the child his own special transforming power. And even if a man is going to be a minister, if a boy of mine had planned to be a minister I should wish him to take a thoroughly good course in manual training. The boy who is trained to fit the patterns of his articles together knows that he must make those joints accurately in order that they may fit properly. Present company always excepted, I have heard sermons that did not seem to fit properly; the different parts, the different elements were not articulated as they should be; and the training that a boy gets in fitting the parts together in manual work so that they really unite strongly will give an amount of development along that line that will qualify him to be a better preacher by and bye. It is not intended by any of this work in the schools to do away with what has been called culture; but we ought to broaden our view of what culture means. The educational people have been fighting since the beginning about what culture means. First only the classic languages; then after the Reformation it began to take in realistic matters, and at that time the leading educators fought any type of science much more vigorously than any type of educational men or women now fight any of what they call the new things of the present. So the ideal has been changing. For instance, I think the kindergarten is a high type of culture because it reveals to the child, as no other process and plan can reveal to him, his true relationship to law—that law is his friend, and that develops in him a consciousness of love for law instead of dread for law; that takes that natural obedience and respect for law in the home and carries it over into respect for law in the game—and all boys love the law in the game—and carries

that over to reverence for law in the school, and by that the reverence for law in his city and his country, and beyond that, reverence for law in his own life; and away beyond that, reverence for the law of God. To get that one ideal of law is culture. But the kindergarten reveals to the child his relationship to the home, his relationship to God, his relationship to society, his duty to society, a very high ideal of training in all departments of the work. The whole process—the singing and the story-telling—are intended to touch the imagination and to kindle the spirit of reverence, and duty, and joy in life, and of loving service in life. Surely those are high ideals of culture.

I plead for more culture than we have, even of the so-called culture, if we can get it given truly. But there are two things that Europe is trying to do now that we are not trying to do in regard to culture. In the first place, as I have already explained, they are not trying to give culture to a few, but to all; to qualify them for their life work by giving them the highest cultivation possible for the life work. That is the first. And secondly, while we are giving culture we must amend our plans of giving culture so that we may give the culture without in any sense arresting the development of the powers, without in any sense dwarfing the selfhood or the soulhood of the individual child. With those two limitations, the more culture we can give the better. But remember that the culture that will make you strong may make me weak. Remember that while so-called culture has been a benediction to many boys and girls of our country and of all countries, that the very same culture that benefited them has blighted and dwarfed the lives of many others. How many boys have you known in Toronto for instance—taking our own city as an illustration, not because it is in any sense worse than others—how many boys have you known whose lives are blighted by being forced to study classics, Latin for instance? How many children's lives are being blighted by being compelled to sit for hours at pianos in the home during the day—children who should never be allowed to practise music, some of them; children who could never reach any standing of any consequence in musical development; children to whom music—their own attempts at music, at any rate—can never bring joy or uplift or development? Multitudes of lives of girls are being wasted in that way, and their attitude to life is wasted because they are getting to consider schools as a place where they are forced to do

things that they don't like; and I believe they ought to be developing along the line where they have revealed power to father and mother and to themselves. I don't say that the little boys should be allowed to say, "I shan't study." No boys do that when they are trained properly so that their interest is not interfered with. Dr. Haney only gave you illustration of one or two cases of the effect of this manual work in New York. Why, they have a whole school, that I have had the pleasure of visiting on more than one occasion, where the boys who play truant from other schools, and cannot be kept in the schools by the truant officers, go joyously every day to work at their manual work, and get far more of what we call culture than they do in the ordinary school, or than they ever would have got in the ordinary school if they had been devoting all their time to it. Because when a boy is kindled at his central power, then he widens out that circle very quickly, and all the related elements that appear in his life come in to make him strong.

I should have said to you that during those three years when those boys in Munich are devoting three hours each afternoon of three afternoons in a week to their special trade, they are at the same time having literary culture; they are getting a good course of reading. You cannot give a boy of fourteen a very fully developed taste in literature, but if you keep him reading good appropriate books during his fifteenth and sixteenth and seventeenth years, guiding him through these courses properly, by the time he closes his seventeenth year he ought to have a fairly well developed tendency to read and a fairly well developed choice of the reading that touches his life and develops his powers. That is one of the advantages. I will give you an illustration of what I mean by saying that a boy may be made stupid by the ordinary course of education. Over 42 years ago, when I first came to this city to teach, a boy was given to me who was called backward. They called him a worse name than that. The teachers at that time were mean enough to call a boy who was not near the head of the class "a dunce," especially the boy who stayed at the foot of the class; and this boy thought he was a dunce because he had been told so regularly. He was nine years of age and had not learned to read. He did not seem to learn anything else either. For six weeks I thought he was a dunce. At the end of that time, believing that I could use art for a better purpose

than it had been used, believing that I could use Art for the purpose of kindling souls, not merely to make pictures—I said to my boys one day, “If you will come twice a week at 8 o’clock in the mornings I will be glad to come to give you lessons in another kind of drawing.” I had only one boy the first morning, and that was the dunce. You can imagine what a humiliation it was to me to feel that I had to devote my time to training a boy who could not learn anything. But I started in, and speedily found he had splendid power in that department of work; and to make the story short he rapidly became the best boy in the class in drawing, and when he was kindled at that particular element of his power which was his strongest, and when he received the recognition for what he had done, which he never had received before from anybody probably, either at home or school, poor little fellow, he blossomed out and became a very good scholar in nearly all departments of his work, especially mathematics and art—and they very frequently go together. Within a year from the time that boy left my class he had a larger salary as a draughtsman in an architect’s office than I had as head of the Model School—the only Model School in Ontario at that time; and when the City of Toronto decided to erect the finest City Hall in Canada—and it is the finest in America in any city of our size, vastly better than any other—and called on all the architects in Canada to send in plans, and submitted those plans to an independent body of experts, my boy got the first prize and built that City Hall, and is to-day the greatest architect in the Dominion. (Applause.) I believe that the best teacher of Latin in Canada might have been teaching him Latin till the present moment and he would never have achieved anything worthy of mention. I believe the best teacher of literature might have been trying to teach him literature to the present, and would have failed to kindle him at the centre of his power and make him what he was evidently meant to be—the greatest architect in Canada. When teaching literature we do not always adopt methods that are best for the children. You remember how Dickens criticised that. “Mr. Feeder, B.A., was a kind of human barrel organ, grinding over and over a little list of Greek and Latin tunes, you remember. The boys lost their spirits at the end of three months, and had the cares of the world on their shoulders at the end of six months, and at the end of a year had arrived at the conclusion that all the lessons of the sages and all the visions of the poets were a

mere collection of words and grammar to be ground out." Most of that kind of teaching is done away with now, I am glad to say, but there is some of it left in our country yet. A great educator in Montreal told me that when he went to Scotland and took his two adult daughters with him, and went to the mountains and the lakes and the valleys and the islands and the rivers and the cathedrals that Scott had filled with glory for him, they seemed to have no enthusiasm at all in regard to what they were seeing. He said to them one day, "Don't you know that is the cathedral Scott speaks of in such a book?" and his elder daughter said, "Oh, we are sick of Scott; we had enough of Scott in the High School!" Surely we ought to do better than that in our higher classes. And there is a good deal of literary teaching in the lower classes that is not nearly so appropriate for the culture of the children as work in manual training or in dealing with material things, transforming these material things into harmony with the conceptions those little ones have of what they may do with those things. I heard of a lady in Toledo who had been teaching American literature to very little children. Some people make that mistake. If you read certain literature to the little ones, read it in its purity, read it in its rhythm, read it in its mellow flow of language, it does put apperceptive centres of love for literature into their lives. But this lady had been teaching American literature, New England literature chiefly, to the little ones, and talking about that to the little ones so as to start them right with their culture. She came down the Park in the spring morning and saw robins hopping joyously. She appeared before her class and said, "What do you think I saw hopping in the Park this morning?" Nothing was said for a while, but one little boy raised his hand and said, "Long-fellow!" Children will give the answer they think you want, very often. Many pupils in all schools are getting no more of the genuine soul of literature or apperceptive power of literature than those little folks were. Literature will train a certain body of our people to reach a higher standard than they could reach in any other way; and surely we need the culture of the soul, the spiritual development of the people who are capable of receiving it. Surely we need that so that they may go higher than the present generation and reach up nearer to the Divine, and get revelations from the Divine in regard to their duties and the duty of their fellow-

men, and the relationship of God to us and of our relationship to Him. Surely we need all that development as fully as possible for those who are capable of being kindled by that kind of teaching; and we should give all the culture we can, with the two limitations that I gave—that if we are giving culture to the one-seventieth, we need not neglect to give culture to the other sixty-nine-seventieths; and that we should give the culture in all subjects in such a way as to develop the self-hood of the child to the fullest extent.

With those two limitations, culture is right; and they are doing a little better work in the Old Land, I think, than we are. But manual training in the Old Land, England or Germany, is not so far advanced as the work you had revealed to you yesterday, or the kind that we are trying to do in Toronto. They are still trying to discipline the child by culture. I am glad they have got that far. You know that down to the time of Locke the ages thought only of the knowledge. He thought of the child, but he thought of the child as a thing to be moulded in certain ways, and disciplined—especially disciplined in certain ways by knowledge. Herbart thought of the child, but he thought of the child as a thing to be transformed by knowledge. Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel on the other hand, thought of the child chiefly; the knowledge was a secondary matter; the knowledge was something that came to the child. Of course; because the higher your ideal is, the more surely you get all the subordinate ideas. When the American and English teachers went to see Pestalozzi teaching, blinded by that ideal of knowledge, they saw knowledge only, and they said, "He is using objective material, and he is really giving those children more knowledge in a week than we do in a month, and they remember it afterwards because they have handled the things." And that is all we got of it for a time, and we brought into America and England that horrible thing that we called "Object teaching" in the old days. Froebel went to Pestalozzi and spent nearly two years with him. He used material things not for the purpose of giving knowledge, not for the purpose of developing faculty power—as Pestalozzi was trying to do, according to his own statement—but for the purpose of giving the child those material things so that he might transform them into new forms in harmony with his own soul vision, his own self vision, and in that way develop his creative power. We are trying to do

that in America a little better than they are yet in the Old Land, but the change in England during the last thirteen years is most encouraging, and the articles in their magazines are just as high in character as the articles in our magazines, and I think they are making more rapid progress in England than they are in any other part of the world. How they were blinded by examinations, for instance! "Payment by result," even! until only a few years ago. They have got clear of that awful burden. You remember how the ideals of teachers were described by them. This illustration may not have occurred that appeared in an English paper, that was written to show the general feeling. Such a story is just as true as if it had been a fact, as if it had occurred really. Most imaginary literature is truer than the history, if you think of it. And they say that a teacher heard one morning that a little boy who had been in the school the day before had died during the night, and heaving a little sigh she said, "Oh, well, he wouldn't have passed anyway!" (Laughter.) So that it was not so much of a loss as if he had been one of the boys who would have passed. They are getting out of that condition very rapidly, and in only one of the cities of England that I visited did I find that the children in the first book, four years of age, had to pass an examination before they were promoted to the next grade, and had to have records given in arithmetic and reading in order to secure a promotion to the next grade! I only found that in one of the cities in England, Scotland or Wales.

The Welsh people in their conceptions of education are ahead of the other parts of the Old Empire over yonder, in general education as well as in Manual Training. They are vastly beyond us in domestic science in England. They have not only all that we have, and I think better than we have it, but they have training in other departments that we don't think of at all yet. They have laundry work in most of the cities. In a new school you will find a room 40 x 60 sometimes, devoted entirely to laundry work, where they have stationary tubs, and where the children bring articles from home and are trained to wash those in a scientific way, and are then trained to starch them and laundry them fully in a scientific way for the home. A great deal better than that, the girls in the highest class in the elementary schools in a good many cities are trained to do what they call "housewifery"—work in the home. Taking Bristol as an illustra-

tion, near the school they rent a cottage and the girls in the highest class spend 100 hours of their last year living and working in that cottage. They sleep there part of the time, and are trained to do the work of the early morning, the preparation for breakfast, under expert women. They have a kitchen in which they are trained to do all kinds of kitchen work scientifically and keep things clean. They are trained to buy the breakfast of good wholesome food at the cheapest rate; trained to vary the meals of different days of the two weeks so as to give a sequence of food that will be healthful and at the same time not cost too much; trained in all the departments of dining-room and parlor and bedroom work, and to do it in the best and most modern way. Does not that mean a great deal for the girls of England? Would it not mean a great deal to the girls of our country to be trained to do that in a scientific way, and in a way such as will produce least disturbance and at the same time keep everything in the most perfectly hygienic condition? In Bradford I saw in a new school a whole suite of rooms on one flat—kitchen, dining-room, parlor and bedroom, and the girls did all the work there. That is a department that we have not yet reached in this country. I think the girls have a good right to get the best possible training to make them home-makers and home-keepers; and if our women had better homes for the men we would not need to worry so much about whether that was a legal by-law or not that was passed in regard to the liquor traffic a while ago. Every man would stay at home a little more willingly than some of them do now.

In physical education they are vastly beyond us in Europe. For formal work they have much better apparatus and appliances and pay much better attention to it than we do. In almost every High School that I was in I saw the lady who was training the girls, and she and they were dressed in gymnastic suits, and they did work that was evidently developing the body in strength and grace and activity, and would contribute also to the healthfulness of the girls. Boys receive their training too; not merely in the formal physical work, but in sports they are doing great work.

In Toronto those splendid young men of our staff, and the principals and the women too of our staff, have worked so hard that I think possibly we have the best organization of sports, at any rate the largest, in the world in a city of our size. But there is one thing they do in the old land that we have not done in this country

yet to any great extent. On the Saturday afternoon that I was there the boys from Nottingham were playing a football match with the boys from Edinburgh, and there were 25,000 people of Nottingham to see the match. Of course Hamilton and Toronto will probably organise next year, and London and Hamilton, and the neighboring cities, and the champions of that district and of the district east will meet here in Toronto and we will have championship matches. Do you think it hurts the people of a country to take a deeper interest in the physical development of the race? I don't. I believe the dominant races are those that have the greatest and deepest interest in physical culture, and I believe that good sports are worth far more than any formal physical culture, as all kinds of informal work are better than formal work. They have another kind of physical work in Europe which we are as yet utterly lacking, that is, swimming. In all the cities of England that I visited they had splendid arrangements for training the boys and girls to swim. In Bradford, not as large a city as Toronto, they have fourteen public swimming baths. We are priding ourselves on the fact that sometime soon we are going to have one in Toronto! They have fourteen, and the boys and the girls of that city are trained to swim. We have our annual sports at the Exhibition Grounds for all the field and track events; they have their annual competition in swimming. The swimming baths are under the school in some cities. I like the Bradford plan better, where the boys and girls have a right to go and be trained by regular capable experts in swimming, and without having to give up the basement of the school to the swimming bath. In fact they do not take the basement very often; they take a large section of the first floor; because they are so triumphantly developed in the idea of not caring how much a thing costs over there. They spend more in building a school before they get up to the first floor than we spend in the whole building.

In my opinion their modern buildings are better than ours; better in their adaptation for school work. Their schools are usually divided into infant department, girls' department, and boys' department. They keep them separate at that age, so that by and by, when they are old enough and come in each other's presence, they will rush at each other, I suppose, very definitely to make up for lost time! I don't know any other reason, but they do keep them separate; and very commonly the way they build

their school is to have three separate buildings on the one ground. They have only a little Island there, but they waste more land than any other part of the world that I was ever in. There is scarcely one foot of land wasted in Germany. For 30 miles around Berlin the land is so poor that you could not grow potatoes upon it, but they grow pine trees on every foot of it. When you are going through a cutting in any part of Germany you will see trees growing on the slope right down so near the car that if you put out your hand you can touch the trees sometimes. But that is not so in England. In Little England many times you will see a park with 5,000 acres of trees, and very often far more than that of waste land; and in their towns and cities they have much larger plots for playgrounds, for school grounds, than we have. But they sometimes cover a great deal more of it than I think they ought to cover with their buildings. The modern type is not to put these three in separate buildings, but to put them one over the other. Whether they be separate or one over the other, however, they generally have eight rooms for the infants, as they call them, eight rooms for the girls, and eight for the boys, in one of their fairly average sized schools, about 24 rooms. Each one of those departments will have a room larger than the lower part of this hall—not the same shape, but larger than this floor, in which they always have a piano. That gives an opportunity for assembling the children in the morning, for the assembling of classes, for music or calisthenics, or any department of united work they may wish to have through the day. I like the buildings.

Speaking of the piano reminds me of their music. They are so far ahead of us in this subject that we cannot institute comparisons; it would only be contrasts. I heard music specially in Nottingham, Bradford, and Wales. The Bradford music is better to me than any Mendelssohn Choir music that I ever heard. I think that is possibly because I am not capable of appreciating the music of the Mendelssohn Choir. The Sheffield Choir that is coming out here next fall, as any one will tell you who understands conditions, is the leading choir of the world; and those boys and girls I heard in the High Schools, who had worked up from the kindergarten, were vastly better singers than I ever heard anywhere else. Of course the Welsh singers are very fine and matured singers whether they are miners or trained choirsters, they all sing, and sing well with a peculiar quality of voice; but I think the York-

shire singers are better; they devote more attention to it. The Board of Education in Toronto have never bought one piano. Though we have many pianos in our schools, they were bought by the parents and teachers uniting, getting up a concert, or something of that kind. I like to train self-reliance on the part of teachers, schools and individuals. It brings us into touch with the teachers and pupils. We are getting large returns in the schools that way, but the Boards are not buying the pianos. The Boards in England put three in a school of 24 rooms, one in each department.

The large room I speak of in the schools is a splendid place for another thing; they give a great deal of attention to art in England and Scotland especially, and that room with its good high walls makes a splendid art gallery. It is well lighted, and they hang the pictures that belong to the schoolroom largely on that wall. There is another thing they do. They may leave one good picture in each room, and change that picture once a month, but the main body of the pictures belonging to the school hang in the large hall, where all children may come and look at them at any time. Another practice is to get from the local art galleries good pictures to hang on those walls, and Liverpool and Manchester exchange pictures for their schools. They are doing far more of that work in Germany and England than we are. For years in Toronto we have been trying to do some of it, but they are beyond us in that. Mrs. Humphrey Ward, who is coming here in a few weeks, is the head of the great National organization for the purpose of getting pictures in the schools. I wish we had women here who would take up that work a little more than they have done in the past. It does not unsex a woman to do that, whatever you may think of other work. In that High School I spoke of in Bradford they had two art teachers who taught nothing else but art, and in that school only. We have not one teacher of art for the whole of the High Schools in Toronto—a special teacher of art whose only duty it is to do that work. They are away beyond us in art teaching. I found that to be true in Edinburgh as well as in English cities. They are doing more to teach art in schools, and to put artistic work in the schools, than we are in this country. Of course they are older than we are, but I hope we will wake up and catch up in that work.

They are doing gardening nearly everywhere in the schools. The English school Boards have had authority for years to rent fields for the school children to plant flowers and vegetables in to grow, and there is a good deal in that. Froebel revealed that thought; and there are fewer gardeners in jails and penitentiaries, proportionately, than of any other class. I am not going to discuss the philosophy of that, but I wish you to take that as a falling apple. We should have vastly more of that work in our schools than we have, and we are going to have in Toronto and I hope all over the world. The digging and hard work is done by the boys, the Board simply providing the manure, the girls helping in the planting, and watering, and keeping of the flowers.

But there is one thing in which I think America is ahead, in the general fundamental principles of education. We have passed more than they have beyond the Herbartian stage. Their kindergarten work is Herbartian; it is not really kindergarten work at all. There are three kinds of kindergarten work, so-called, in America—Herbartian kindergartens, which are not kindergartens at all; Pestalozzian kindergartens, which are mere object-lesson-giving places; and genuine kindergartens, which put the child in the midst, as Christ did, and keep the child in the midst, and relate things to him so that he may use them, not that he may be stuffed with them. Knowledge is the dominant ideal in England yet. The Nature Study Society at its Conference last year passed a resolution, moved by a gentleman who has written a book on Nature Study, and which read practically this way:—"Whereas the *knowledge* gained by the children in Nature study is of much use to all kinds of men and women in all departments of life-work, therefore be it resolved that Nature study should be an organic part of all school systems in the world." Because it gives *knowledge*; not because it reveals God to the child, as Froebel claimed that it did, as you know, if you think of it—that those of you who are cleanest and sweetest and purest in your lives if you go to the woods and sit down, will get most direct revelations from Nature in some way of an uplifting and purifying kind. And in the kindergarten they have songs for the purpose of giving knowledge; and when the little ones should be personating trees and developing their imagination, each one feeling that he is a maple or an ash, or a birch, or a beech, or an elm, they are careful to give the little one a branch of the different trees, so that he may waggle his

branch when he is a waving tree, when the little birds are inside the circle. One of the ladies, after having shewn me a performance of that kind, came with the usual school gush and said, "Isn't it beautiful how they learn about the trees in this way?" and I said, "That is the most pathetic sight I have seen yet in the Old Land. The only thing you could do to make it more awful would be to tie goose-wings on some of the little birds, and turkey-wings on some of the others, and sprinkle the rest of them with chicken feathers so that they would know that they were birds. Such practices rob the children of the high development that they were meant to get by the kindergarten games!" That is the chief thing that I saw in England that I should like really to change, and to change at once. But we in America need to change too, so many of us are in the Herbartian stage yet of knowledge-giving to the children to transform their character. None of us believe, as Herbart did, that if there are ten children who have had exactly the same experience and exactly the same amount of learning and literature and science and mathematics and art and music and Bible knowledge, that those ten are exactly alike. We believe that the soul of the child dominates all knowledge that comes to him, and transforms that knowledge if it is properly taught; and I hope all teachers in America will get that higher, grander conception. (Loud applause.)

MR. SUDDABY: I wish to move a vote of thanks to Mr. Hughes for his very interesting address. I think this country ought to be very thankful to have a man so thoroughly able to investigate conditions in Europe and so able on returning home to give an account of it.

MR. HAGARTY seconded the motion, which was carried amid applause and presented by the President to Mr. Hughes, who acknowledged it with thanks for the patient and attentive hearing which had been accorded him.

THE PRESIDENT: The Board of Directors had a communication from the Rev. Mr. Fitzpatrick, who is conducting booths in the lumber camps, and have agreed to allow him ten minutes to address the meeting this evening.

Rev. Mr. Fitzpatrick gave the following address:—

Mr. Hagarty read his paper on "Method of Graduating."

After general business, the Convention closed at 11 p.m.

*GRADUATION OF PUPILS FROM THE PUBLIC SCHOOL
AND FROM THE HIGH SCHOOL.*

E. W. HAGARTY, B.A., TORONTO.

I propose merely to outline this subject for discussion and to indicate very briefly my own opinion on various phases of the question. My method of outlining will be to propound certain questions, answers to which in the form of resolutions would perhaps constitute the best manner of clearing up a very uncertain and complicated situation. The Education Department, I believe, has been quoted as favoring this or that policy when it was in reality feeling its way and looking for advice from those most competent to give it, namely, the active educators of the province.

Graduation from High Schools and from Public Schools is a topic that can be dealt with under one head by a mixed body of teachers. It involves a very close parallel and the same principles can be applied to both sets of schools.

The questions I should like to see answered to-night are the following :—

1. What should be the course of study for the Public School and what for the High School? Should each be regulated with a view to itself, complete in itself and suitable to the whole class of pupils involved, or should each be regulated with a view to something external and subsequent, possibly a higher course of study or certain varied and specialized walks of life that particular classes of pupils may wish to enter upon?

2. Should the completion of the course be marked by an examination or not?

3. If by an examination, should it be external or internal—provincial or local?

4. What should the examination be called—High School Entrance in the one case and Matriculation in the other? Or, should names be adopted that signify *completion* and possibly *promotion*?

(By completion of the ordinary Public School course I assume everyone will understand the close of fourth book work, and, for the High School, pass matriculation or its equivalent, continuation in either school to be regarded as post-graduate.)

In dealing with the first question—the only one I propose to dwell upon—I contend the course for each school should be complete in itself, as far as it goes, and suitable for the whole body of pupils involved. The question should be for the Public School, “What can and should a boy or girl learn up to the age of 13 or 14, or rather, “What can and should all boys and girls learn up to that age?” Similarly for the High School, the question should be, “What constitutes a good, all-round advanced course of study for those who can afford to stay at school another three or four years?” The High School should content itself, and, so far as I know, has always contented itself with receiving pupils well grounded in the essential subjects of the Public School course, and the University should content itself with a preparation for its work that is complete in itself, as far as it goes, and is suitable to the needs of every High School pupil, whether that pupil intends to cease schooling altogether at the age of 17 or 18 or go on to a University course. This talk about the Public School course being subordinated to the High School and leading on to the High School—of the interests of the 95 per cent. being sacrificed to those of the 5 per cent. is all nonsense—it is a man of straw—it is a catch phrase that has been doing duty now for a number of years and which should be relegated to the limbo of forgotten absurdities. It is not true. It is not fair. One might as well take the 20 per cent. of pupils who persist to the end of the Public School course and say that the interests of the other 80 per cent. are being sacrificed to those of the few. There is no need of shaping the Public School course to the requirements of the so-called 5 per cent. who enter the High School, because those 5 per cent. have no special requirements, and no one ever pretended that they had. Moreover, if there were special requirements for the High School entrants, they would be entitled to greater consideration than a ratio of 5 to 95 would give them, because, I am informed, the proportion of pupils in the fourth book classes who actually go on to High School work either in a High School or in a Continuation School (and what is the difference?) or wish to pass the “Entrance” as a mark of distinction the same as many a High School pupil wishes to secure the standing of an undergraduate of the University—by matriculating, is more like 40 or 50 per cent. than 5 per cent., and thus figures are made to convey a false impression—not intentionally, but through ignorance or prejudice in viewing the subject.

Let us hear no more of this. It is not inspired by Public School teachers, I am sure, at any rate, by the sober and thoughtful men and women who are doing fourth book work. It is a politician's shibboleth that has served its day and generation, and the sooner it is dropped and forgotten the more creditable will it be to those who have used it.

Another fallacy I should like to explode, now that I am discussing this subject of *courses*. The High School course does not lead to the professions and never has, at least never was intended to. There is just one exception to this. The work of fitting teachers in academic knowledge has always been loaded by the Government upon the High Schools throughout the province, particularly the High Schools of our smaller towns, and to-day the only stumbling block in the way of a course of study for the High Schools that will suit the all-round student seeking a broad foundation of knowledge and culture that will make him a better citizen, whether it be a business man or a professional, is the determination of the Government to wrench the academic preparation of teachers aside from the normal and legitimate course of the average High School pupil and to prescribe a non-professional course of study for teachers and set examination papers for teachers irrespective entirely of what can and ought to be done for the non-pedagogic pupil. A cleavage is being introduced, I say, into our High Schools in this matter, that will work more harm and cause more confusion and embarrassment than anything that has been done for a long time. There are whole High Schools, that are practically given over to the preparation of teachers, so much so that when a slight adjustment of the High School course came up for consideration recently, the objection was raised that this would practically put many High Schools out of business for general purposes, because their work was almost exclusively teacher work and anything that conflicted with that would have to go. Now, I hold that, so long as the Government insists on making our High Schools or a considerable number of them a training ground for teachers in mere academic knowledge, and insists, moreover, on differentiating the teachers' work so that it is very largely unsuitable to the requirements, in culture and general knowledge, of the ordinary High School pupil, it is idle to raise the cry that the High Schools are leading to the professions and to shout for a policy that will make the High School a so-called "poor man's college" or, what would be more appropriate,

a "farmer's college," an "engineer's college," a "book-keeper's college," or, by and by, I suppose, as the process of differentiation along practical lines goes on, a "navigator's college," a "shop-keeper's college," a "forester's college," and what not? The High School can do but a definite amount of work and there can be but one High School to a given locality. The question is, "Are we going to multiply the possible courses to be followed in a High School until no one of them can be followed definitely without excluding all the rest?" This is practically being done, I have said, regarding the teachers' course. If that is to be the case, what is to be the basis of selection for each High School? Is one to be a farmer's school, another a technical school, another (and there must be several such if the present tendency prevails) a teacher's school? And will the farmer's schools appeal to farmers in a farming locality and never afford an opportunity to the farm boy to become a lawyer or a doctor if he wishes to except at the, in most cases, prohibitory expense of attending a lawyer's or a doctor's school in some locality congenial to the development of lawyers and doctors? In which locality, peopled largely no doubt by the professional classes, the uncouth and awkward farmer's boy would not be very welcome and would find himself not very much at home. And then our High School system, instead of being the ordinary poor man's college system, will be one of *caste* and *local option*, or rather of *local compulsion*. Why should our High Schools in agricultural communities teach agriculture essentially any more than High Schools in a community where lawyers and doctors abound teach law and medicine essentially? Agriculture is and ought to be the pride of this country and the employment of the bulk of the population. But it is not, I submit, the function of the High School as a High School to teach it, except as a side line, accessory to the central idea of culture. At any rate, if there is to be any differentiation and there is to be one type of instruction for rural schools and another for urban, I submit that it would be better for the health of the country at large that the rural schools should teach industrial and professional pursuits and the urban agricultural pursuits. But this would be Utopian and is not to be considered.

What then are we going to do? Strike an average. Let the High Schools all over the country aim at a simple continuation of the Public School course a broader and higher culture of head and heart than is possible within the limits of the Public School age,

producing an aristocracy of intellect and refinement for those who can struggle their way into it. Let our city pupils learn respect and love for agriculture and nature without necessarily learning to be farmers and let our country pupils gain an insight into literature and art, that will make them better farmers and more content to stay on the farm and more capable of enjoying farm life if they stay there and yet equip them for industrial and professional or business life in the city if their instincts lead them citywards. Schools cannot stem the tide from farm to counting-house or professional office. But schools can by heart culture of the proper kind—through literature largely not through technical scientific training exclusively—inspire a love for the country even in the city-bred and teach the farm-raised boy respect for the calling of his father and a determination by intelligence and refined enthusiasm to improve on the methods of his childhood surroundings.

The course of study then, I advocate, for the High School is one of all-round, evenly balanced culture, not of specialization for the teacher's calling or for agriculture any more than for medicine or law. Let the University, whether in Arts or Law or Medicine or Engineering, take the High School well-cultured boy as it finds him and do the best it can with him, to produce a still more highly trained and cultivated intellectual aristocracy than what the High School can accomplish within its sphere. And let the High School, as I said before, build on the plain, all-round work of the Public School, as it has been doing despite the nonsense we hear about 95 per cent. and 5 per cent.

Thus much for the courses of study, which I regard as fundamental to the whole question.

For the rest, I shall do no more than merely indicate my opinion.

1. I believe in an examination to round off each course of study.

2. I believe the examination should be external to the school, and provincial rather than local, checked of course by due safeguards such as the opinion of the teacher in doubtful cases or cases of misfortune.

3. I think there is no harm in a Public School pupil's working for what is called a High School Entrance examination and the High School pupil's working for undergraduate standing as indi-

cated by the term Matriculation. I think it will be found that these terms add zest and dignity to the goal of completion aimed at, and even though they entice some few, who otherwise would not, to go on to the High School, on to the University, what harm? Do we begrudge the higher learning to any boy or girl who is worthy of it and will strive for it?

COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

MATRICULATION EXAMINATION.

JAMES DAVISON, B.A., GUELPH.

Gentlemen: I desire to call your attention to what I think are some defects in the Matriculation Examination as conducted in the various Universities at the present time.

Then, first. I think it is a mistake to pass Arithmetic and Grammar on the certificate of the Principal of approved schools.

The organization for the conducting of these examinations has been complete and I believe satisfactory.

Experience in conducting these examinations has practically eliminated all elements of unfairness and I believe that no other system can be advanced that will cause less trouble and give equal satisfaction.

The Examiner who read the appeals in Arithmetic in 1904 told me that there was not a single mark changed in any candidate's paper on the whole Arithmetic Examination in appeals. I have reason to believe that the Examiners in Grammar and in almost every other subject performed their duties in the same careful way. Let us still have this same old, well-tried method.

It is no hardship for any pupil who has been properly taught and who understands the subject to be asked to concentrate his attention for a couple of hours on a fair examination. To train him to do this well should be a part of his education, because the whole of his after life demands such training. If he enters any of the learned professions he will meet with numerous tests of this kind and he will be unable to do himself justice, without being well-trained. If he takes part in any public occupation or the discharge of any duties of a public nature the same arrangement of his ideas in an orderly way will be indispensable. All candidates should have systematic training in examinations in Arithmetic, Grammar and all other subjects.

There might be a good reason for testing French and German Conversation in this way and perhaps also practical work in Botany and Zoology, but I see no reason for conducting an Arithmetic and Grammar examination after this fashion.

Then, too, I consider that their removal from the list of subjects where a written test is required will be detrimental to success in their teaching.

I am a believer in a system of rewards as an inducement to honest effort to the great majority of mankind, in school as in all other affairs.

Our school is organized throughout on this principle: We hold an examination every Monday, taking the subjects of the curriculum in succession from September to May. The totals of these examinations are found for the school year and the names of the pupils are placed in order of merit with the marks they obtained.

The first on the list in each Form is presented with a prize at the Annual Commencement and the names of the first ten in each Form are placed in order of merit with the marks obtained in a Souvenir Programme, and the whole of every Form throughout the school is printed in the city papers, so that those standing low also reap their reward.

In the Lower School these results are a test of the candidate's fitness for promotion and in the middle and upper school they furnish material for the Confidential Report.

The parents of the children watch the contest with eagerness and add additional weight by offering watches, gold pieces, etc., to their children should they rank well in these lists.

Of course these examinations entail a great deal of work on the staff, but they know of its good effects, find pleasure in the contests, and not one of them would favor its discontinuance.

Formerly, these examinations did not include Reading, Writing and Book-Keeping, but a request came from the teachers of these subjects to have these included in the cycle so that their classes might come under the same incentive to thorough work as the other classes taking the school course.

So great is the interest taken in these little school examinations which are competitive as well as qualifying that nothing within

his own control will induce a pupil to be absent on Monday morning. Nothing short of real illness or a snow blockade will keep a pupil away on Monday.

If these slight rewards that I have mentioned—a \$5 prize at the commencement, or a place in the upper ten prove so great a benefit in the thorough preparation of the daily class work, how much greater then will be the effect of a desire for success at the Matriculation Examination in these two subjects?

A few weeks ago a manufacturer showed me through his shop and on one floor several men were engaged in boring holes in metal plates which necessitated frequent sharpening of the drills. One man in a distant part of the shop started for the corundum wheel to sharpen his drill, when another, nearer to the wheel, saw the first man coming and rushed in ahead to sharpen his drill, causing the former to wait, much to his annoyance. They were piece-workers. A few men in another part of the shop were day workers and some of them were seeking an opportunity to have to wait till some one else got out of their way. To a piece-worker the hands of a clock fly, to some day workers there are weights on the hands.

The manufacturer told me that when a man was changed from day work to piece-work he would in a few hours discover new and short methods of doing the work that had been his daily occupation for years.

Arithmetic and Grammar may now be prepared at the day-worker's pace and the other subjects at that of the piece-worker. Hence I maintain that the examination paper when set by the University is a strong incentive to thorough work.

Now, as to passing of the pupil on the Principal's certificate, I fear this will not be satisfactory.

It is the opinion of many that a similar method of passing the Entrance History has proved a failure. I have heard it stated that in some places attention is paid to History in classes below the Entrance, but after that the teaching in the Entrance class amounts to the reading of an interesting book on the subject.

One reason for my doubts about the success of this method of passing Matriculation candidates on the report of the Principal is the delicacy of deciding so important a matter in cases where close relations existed between the teacher and the relatives of the pupils. There may be pupils in my class whose parents are members of the Board of Education and my dealings with these may be closely

watched lest I mark high, or there may be pupils with whom I have had difficulties and I should be observed lest I should mark too low.

To avoid criticism I may rate the children of the latter high, while those of the former may receive nothing more than justice. In a game of hockey, if the referee is known to be a stranger to the rival teams he can usually manage the game satisfactorily, but if he is connected with one of the rival teams he can hardly avoid criticism. In an important game neutral referees are preferred. The Departmental Examiner is a neutral referee for academic honors.

Dicey, in the "Law of the Constitution," says that "Discriminatory Authority on the part of the Government means insecurity from legal freedom on the part of the subjects." A good example of discriminatory authority and its evil effects is to be found in the government of Russia. In Russia we hear daily of battle and murder, and sudden death and all evils from which we pray to be delivered. Let the University Examiner do the discriminating.

In England and the United States on the contrary we have examples of Governments deprived of discriminatory authority through the Habeas Corpus Act and under these Governments, subjects enjoy a liberty and freedom unknown to the unhappy people of Russia.

We need not go so far to find an illustration of the lack of wisdom, in placing the decision of so important a matter in the hands of the Principal. The Education Department demands that an examiner who, by chance, finds that he is reading the answer papers of his own pupils, must pass them over to be dealt with by an independent examiner.

In the Matriculation Examinations the passing of candidates on the Principal's word has been decided for the year 1908 only—I hope this will be the last.

In the Entrance to Normal the case is different because these candidates will receive instruction and will have to pass examinations and do real teaching in these subjects and they are usually a class of candidates who desire a thorough knowledge of every subject they undertake.

Passing Matriculation on the Principal's certificate is said to resemble a system in use on the American side of the line. I have had some experience in certifying to the proficiency of pupils who have left Canada and desire to enter American colleges.

A candidate a few years ago failed in his Matriculation badly, and having gone to the United States wrote me for a general statement of his standing. He said that the Registrar of the College was an old lady and could not understand per cent. He just wished me to say that he had taken up English, Mathematics, Latin, etc. I sent him exactly the per cent. he obtained in each and he must have charmed her, or convinced her that percentage meant something strange and unimportant for he was admitted there, although an utter failure in Ontario.

A lady from New York wrote asking me for credits in various subjects and in reply I asked her the year she attended Guelph school. I felt so certain that I had never heard her name before that I suggested that it might have been the Central School she attended. I received the following reply:—

NEW YORK, Sept. 3, 1907.

Dear Sir: Replying to your favor of the 1st, I regret to say that the most definite information I can give you regarding my attendance at the Guelph School is that it was sometime prior to 1885, but whether it was the Central School or the Collegiate Institute I attended I am a little uncertain, but probably your records will contain all the necessary facts. Again thanking you, I am,

Very truly yours,

A. M. B.

A boy in one of my classes was attempting to do a question in Algebra in which it was necessary to multiply 75 by 84. This he did in this way:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 75 \\
 84 \\
 \hline
 645 \\
 822 \\
 \hline
 6282
 \end{array}$$

He crossed over to the United States a few weeks later, entered a law school and completed his course in the regulation time. He did not request a certificate of his proficiency, or his lack of it.

A clergyman was being inducted into a new parish. Many questions were asked him to prove his soundness, amongst them, this one was asked, "Do you believe in a hell." He hesitated and the retiring clergyman, who was sitting near, said, "Tell them yes. If you don't now you will before you are in this parish two months."

Therefore, as a Principal, I wish to express my disfavor with this added responsibility.

Now I am not in favor of the method of passing Matriculation by instalments.

It may be pointed out that amongst the Matriculation candidates there are those who gamble with the whole examination with the expectation of securing the half, those taking a few subjects to complete Matriculation, Musical Matriculation, S. P. S. Matriculation, and candidates for full Matriculation.

My experience is that the least proficient in any subject are those candidates taking the fewest number of subjects and conversely. Their proficiency in any subject is inversely proportional to the number of subjects taken within certain limits. A reference to results of examinations taken would prove this.

Those who try the whole are successful in all but one or two subjects and return to school to pass the remaining subjects, get into lazy habits and although they may be successful they have gone back more in the subjects they have not taken than they have advanced in those in which they were starred and at the end of the year mentally they are not as good as at the beginning.

I dislike having these pupils about the school. Pupils to be happy and contented must be kept busy, studying the same lessons and engaged in the same weekly examinations as the rest of the class.

This method of partial Matriculation should be, if possible, discontinued. I should prefer the method used by the Education Department. I would suggest that the results of the Matriculation Examination be left to a committee something like the Revising Committee, whose duty it would be to examine the results, and while 40 per cent. is the standard to be aimed at, if a candidate's papers were of a high order, but perhaps a little low in one subject or even below the line in another, it should be the duty of the Committee to pass the candidate. If the answers or results show that a candidate is unfit he should be sent back to do the whole course.

A candidate in Guelph in J. T. in 1906 made 743 marks, 750 would have been the honor standing, but she failed in Physics, taking only 25 per cent. She was passed without appeal on the following January.

The only mistake made in that case was that she should have been passed sooner. I promoted her to the upper school and she passed the higher physics without any trouble. I think the general result should form the best and most reliable confidential report, and I would strongly recommend this course for Matriculation.

Should a candidate fall low in any subject and be passed he would certainly be aware that his escape from failure was narrow and he could and he would double his energies in this weak subject and bring it on a par with all others. We all do this in our promotion examinations.

Failure in a subject is not always the fault of the candidate. Perhaps one member of the staff is not up to the average and to get a first-class teacher in every subject is not always possible. With a good Revising Committee I think September Supplemental could nearly be abolished.

After all, what chance is there for a candidate to succeed in September who receives the announcement of his failure in August only. Not more than three or four weeks' holiday season to change from failure to success.

The adoption of a policy of this kind for Matriculation does not mean its continuance through the various Colleges. They have not time tables constructed like those of High Schools and a man may take one subject a year if he wishes without being in the way or hindering the progress of anyone else in the College. Many undergraduates are engaged in teaching or in some other occupation and have spare time which they can devote to advancement; this is highly commendable and should be encouraged by the Universities.

The Matriculation to the S.P.S. should, I think, be amended immediately. Candidates for the S. P. S. should be required to take the Mathematics and Science of the Upper School with a 40 per cent. standing and the Junior Matriculation in all other subjects, except perhaps one language.

I notice that in this department there are enrolled 725 students and I also notice that it has been decided that when a candidate

fails the second time in any year he will be expected to withdraw. Evidently the S. P. S. Matriculation standard is at fault.

The Matriculation to this department should fully determine a candidate's fitness to take up this course, instead of allowing him to spend two years of his life in a calling for which he is a misfit. Every High School in the Province is equipped for giving thorough instruction in this course at the homes of the boys, where board is free and expense is trifling. Make it a condition for admission that an examination that is a real test of fitness to enter must be passed and the two year expulsion clause will be unnecessary, and High School Masters, High School pupils and their parents as well as the University Professors will be greatly benefited.

I am not satisfied with the Pass Physics in Matriculation. The present standard is only a review of the Science taught in the Lower School and if provision is not made for keeping it up on the time-table in the Middle School, the candidates are marking time or falling behind.

It would be preferable to prescribe the same Physics for the Junior Matriculation as for Entrance to Normal. It would be better for the pupils, better for the organization, and more satisfactory to the Science Master.

Then it would not be said of these pupils that the little they had learned was worse than none at all.

AGRICULTURE IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

C. C. JAMES, M.A., TORONTO.

IN December, 1863, there was issued the last number of the *Canadian Agriculturist*, published by the Board of Agriculture. At the time, it was the only agricultural paper published in Upper Canada, and was concerned mainly in reporting the doings of agricultural societies, which were the only organizations then in existence. It was announced that it was being discontinued, owing to the cost of production, and because Hon. George Brown advertised his intention to issue a journal to be known as the *Canada Farmer*. It contained also the announcement of a course of lectures on agriculture and veterinary art to be given at University

College by George Buckland, Professor of Agriculture, and Mr. Smith, Veterinary Surgeon to the Board of Agriculture. The total Government grants for 1863 amounted to \$60,000.

To-day, in place of the Board of Agriculture, we have the Provincial Department of Agriculture; in place of Professor Buckland's lectures at University College, we have the Agricultural College and Experimental Farm at Guelph; in place of veterinary lectures, we have the Ontario Veterinary College. The *Canada Farmer* has ceased to exist as such. To-day the farmers of the Province have at least ten weekly and monthly publications devoted to different phases of agricultural work. All the different lines of agricultural industry are to-day assisted by a large number of Provincial and local societies and associations of agriculture. Agricultural societies, which began in 1792, are still in existence; but in addition, we have associations for all the different lines of live stock, horses, cattle, sheep, swine and poultry, two dairy associations and a provincial fruit growers' association; over thirty co-operative fruit growers' societies; local poultry associations, etc., etc. The Ontario Department of Agriculture issues annually fifteen different reports, in addition to a number of bulletins. This Department has been organized under nine different branches, each in charge of a director, and the appropriations voted by the Legislature for 1908 for work along the various lines amount to \$748,000.

Of recent years the education of the farming community has been mainly along three lines; (1) the Agricultural College, (2) the holding of public meetings for instruction, and (3) the publication of reports and bulletins, supplementing the regular issue of papers and journals.

Wherein is the great defect of all this work? In 1907, 1,077 students attended the Agricultural College. In view of the fact that there are at least 350,000 young men and women of varying ages living upon the farms of the Province, it will be seen that the College is directly able to reach only a limited number. Through meetings held and printed reports and bulletins, the class reached consists mainly of persons of mature years. In the progress made from 1863 to 1908, it will be seen that the one great elementary line of instruction has not been effectively touched, namely, the teaching of young men and young women at the educative or formative period of life. In other words, little has been

done towards imparting agricultural education through the public and high schools. Attempts have been made from time to time to accomplish something. No less than three text books have been written for and approved by the Education Department. Why have these failed to accomplish the object desired? The pupils were in the schools ready to be taught. Text books were available for the purpose. But the teachers were not trained for the work. This has been the chief reason why agricultural teaching in the public schools accomplished so little.

If a new attempt were to be made, it was felt that it would be necessary to start with teachers trained and qualified to teach the subject. The only place where such teachers can be found would be at the Agricultural College, young men who had acquired a training in practical agriculture on the farm, and who had taken the course prescribed at the College.

The next question was as to where the work should be started. It was decided that, as the high school is the representative school of the county, it would be the proper place at which to make a start. In 1907, the Legislature provided for the salaries of six such teachers. These were carefully chosen, and by arrangement with the school boards, the following six centres were selected, viz., Morrisburg, Perth, Lindsay, Galt, Collingwood and Essex. It was felt that there would be some difficulty in finding the pupils for such courses, and that it would be necessary to do some outside work. With that in view, it was decided that the Department of Agriculture should establish a Departmental Office at each of these six places, and provide funds for the carrying on of short courses and institutes throughout the county, so that the teacher in charge might become acquainted with the farming class and could prove to the young men on the farm that there was good instruction to be had in the classes in the high school. In other words, it was felt that the teacher would have to go out after the pupils. The work, therefore, has been carried on by the co-operation of the Departments of Education and Agriculture, and so successful has it been that provision was made at the recent session of the Legislature for extending the work. So far the work has been carried on without any extra charge upon the funds of the school board. In some cases, the county councils have made liberal grants towards the acquiring and establishing of experimental grounds at the school. It will take time to build up large classes in agriculture.

They have begun with small numbers, but are increasing in size. Ultimately, in many cases, the high-schools in which these classes are established may be converted into agricultural high schools through the development of that part of the work, and the expense of the course will be gradually transferred to the county council. The ideal aimed at is, to have these agricultural departments established in all or nearly all of the high schools, supported as are now the other departments, and in conjunction therewith to have departmental offices conducted and supported by the Department of Agriculture.

These teachers were appointed in June, 1907. One of the regulations laid down by the Department is that the teachers shall spend one week during December at the Agricultural College, at the time when the Experimental Union meets, and the Winter Fair is in progress. In December, 1907, all of these teachers made reports of progress, and these are to be found in the latest issue of the Experimental Union report, copies of which may be had on application to the Department of Agriculture at Toronto. These reports set forth the various lines of work followed up by these young men. A later report dealing with the work done up to February of the present year is now in the hands of the Department of Education and will be published shortly.

MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

PHONETICS: SOME PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS.

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TORONTO.

After thinking over the question as to what suggestions I could make in connection with phonetics, which would be of practical use to my fellow-teachers of French and German, I concluded that these suggestions would fall naturally into two groups—how teachers may themselves benefit by the study of phonetics, and to what extent it seems to me that we may profitably use phonetics and the phonetic alphabet in our school-rooms.

On the first of these two points, I feel inclined to be exceedingly emphatic. Whether we use the phonetic method in the classroom or not, all teachers of languages, particularly of French, should know something about it. It is too important a fact for a modern teacher to be justified in ignoring. We should all, I think, be thoroughly familiar with the phonetic transcription, and should make for ourselves at least, if not with our pupils, that systematic examination and classification of French sounds which the use of phonetic transcription implies and necessitates. Even a teacher whose own pronunciation is perfect will teach pronunciation all the better for having done this; and one whose pronunciation is faulty can hardly find a better way of improving it.

Otto Jespersen, in his interesting book, "How to teach a Foreign Language," puts the case for phonetics very clearly. He points out that there are two classes of mistakes in pronunciation,

A. Mistakes in the formation of sounds.

B. Mistakes in the employment of sounds.

Now, if one learns the pronunciation of a new language by first analyzing and classifying the sounds and learning to pronounce

them as isolated sounds, and then if one keeps reading from a phonetic transcription, one is guarding very systematically against both of those two kinds of mistake.

Those of the first class, mistakes in the formation of sounds, are due to our native habits of articulation; they can be counteracted by phonetic training, by studying the physiological basis of each sound which gives us trouble, by practising it by itself and in connection with the sounds to which it is most closely related,—in the vowel triangle, if it is a vowel, in connection with the corresponding consonants of our own language, if it is a consonant. If we fail to get every sound, we at least have the satisfaction of knowing where our weak points are. The man who can satisfy a competent critic on every sound except perhaps the French *l* or the uvular *r*, and knows it, has won more than half the battle. On the other hand, if the foreign sounds are once thoroughly mastered, mistakes of this kind can only occur through carelessness, or through the lack of continued practice.

The second class of mistakes in pronunciation, mistakes in the employment of sounds, are absolutely precluded while we are reading from a phonetic transcription. These mistakes are due, of course, to irregularity of spelling, and even people who have learned all the foreign sounds perfectly may make them. We may make them, indeed, in our own language, and when we discuss such questions as whether one should say “isolate” or “isolate,” “apparatus” or “apparātus,” “eether” or “īther,” it is against mistakes of this kind that we are trying to guard. In French, where the spelling is very irregular, we may make them in any new word which we see written without having heard it, and we are even more likely to make them in phrases involving possible *liaisons*, mute *e*’s, etc. It is this kind of mistake which constant practice in reading from correct and carefully prepared phonetic transcription is most useful in helping us, ourselves, to avoid.

I feel no hesitation, therefore, in urging upon Ontario teachers of languages the need of their giving attention to phonetics, if they have not already done so. One whose pronunciation is correct can easily learn to read from phonetic transcript by half an hour’s study of the symbols and key-words, as given in most of the phonetic readers or in our own High School Grammar—which, by the way, was the first text-book published in America making use of this system. For those whose pronunciation is faulty, or those

who are doubtful about it, there are various plans which are good. They can, of course, do the same thing with the help of a private teacher or attend classes. There are numerous courses, summer and winter, which are all more or less profitable. For French, the best is, I suppose, the series of lessons and lectures, given every winter in Paris by M. Paul Passy at the *Ecole des Hautes Etudes*. M. Passy has, of course, always been the leading spirit of the *Association Phonétique Internationale*. I attended these lectures in 1902 and found them not the least interesting part of a most valuable year's work. This course is, however, not often possible since it involves being in Paris during the winter. The *Alliance française* and the *Franco-English Guild* both furnish summer courses, necessarily less satisfactory, to be sure, but I believe very good. The summer courses in Germany all include phonetics in their curriculum—a very significant fact. Many of the Universities offer such courses, particularly Jena and Marburg, where Professor Viëtor always lectures; and the "Teachers' Guild of Great Britain and Ireland," organizes similar work, and has held summer classes at Tours, Honfleur, Neuwied am Rhein, Königsberg and other places during the last few years. For the past two years also, M. Passy has come over to Edinburgh in July and August to give lectures on French phonetics as a part of the summer work arranged by Professor Kirkpatrick, of the University of Edinburgh. I have not heard whether this work will be done in Edinburgh again this summer or not.

I scarcely know whether to include these summer holiday courses among my "suggestions" or not. I went to one, at Neuwied on the Rhine, two years ago, and certainly had a most delightful summer, but my enjoyment of it was due to the Rhine country; not to the lectures.

The important question for most of us is,—to what extent and in what way the phonetic method of teaching can be adapted to conditions existing in our own High Schools and Collegiate Institutes? Our classes are larger, and our pupils older, than is the case in the schools which writers on methods in modern languages usually have in mind; but we can, for all that, use natural and phonetic methods to some extent. I do not feel any inclination to be emphatic or dogmatic in this part of my subject. I merely purpose to tell you what I have done in my own first form French classes in Lindsay and Toronto, and with what results.

My first move is to teach the sounds; I give most of my attention to the vowels. I teach them one by one, give a word or phrase with the required sound in it, teach the pronunciation by imitation, isolate the sound, and give its phonetic symbol. As I go on, working out all the vowels in the triangle, I depend on the pupils' imitation of my own pronunciation, on the relationship of the sounds as shewn in the triangle, and, especially in the case of the most difficult, on instruction as to position of lips, tongue, etc. This work takes time, of course, and is accompanied, concurrently, (alternate lessons sometimes) by conversation lessons, based on our surroundings in the school-room and on picture charts. At first the words and phrases used in these conversations are learned by imitation only. Then as the phonetic work goes on, I write the new phrases on the board in phonetic script and the pupils read, individually and in concert; or I ask them to identify the sounds we are using by pointing out their symbols. The vowels, I keep on the board nearly all the time, and all the lessons begin by a drill on them.

As soon as I think the class is familiar with sounds and symbols I set them to learning French by heart, from phonetic transcription. In Lindsay I used for this purpose one of the little yellow readers of the *Lectures Phonétiques* series, but in Parkdale I have had no reader because I could not make up my mind as to which one was best to get. The *Lectures Variées* which I had used in Lindsay, has not a sufficient number of suitable selections, and I do not like either the *Premières Lectures françaises* or the *Leçons de Choses*, particularly. I think the subject matter is too childish to be interesting, and the vocabulary not particularly suitable. I have therefore been taking short stories from various sources, from the *Chrestomathie française*, from *Spicers' Reciter*, and from the book which I finally decided that I liked best, Passy's *Choix de Lectures Phonétiques*. These stories I wrote out as I needed them, in phonetic transcription, using the mimeograph. Prose is better than poetry because it makes a better basis for conversation.

My usual method of procedure with a new text is something like this. Each pupil has the foolscap sheet with the phonetic transcription, and it is read sentence by sentence individually and in concert. I correct mistakes in pronunciation by reference to the phonetic symbols on the board, and I try to get the pupils to see

the meaning of the text, using as little actual translation as possible. I do this by carefully prepared questions which can be answered by the pupils in the words of the story before them or in very simple sentences. Of course, one cannot avoid translation altogether, and I think it is foolish to waste time in trying. When I am fairly sure of the first sentence I pass on, taking up the next in the same way, the class going back to the beginning each time to read in concert.

As the term advances the two types of lesson, the lesson on study of sounds, and committing to memory of texts and the conversation lessons, gradually merge into one another; phrases learned in the conversation lessons are used to illustrate and explain the texts and construction and vocabulary acquired from the texts help out the conversation lessons.

I have said that I prefer prose selections for learning by heart, but I find that the pupils prefer poetry. I had taught them some jingles like *La Mire Michel* in one case, and *Le Roi de Savoie* in another, when they were at the stage when my main object was to teach sounds. They were so pleased with themselves over these performances that they wanted more poetry after the first story had been learned, and I was weak-minded enough to yield and teach them La Fontaine's fable, *La Cigale et la Fourmi*. But I find, of course, that they make more real progress and learn more French from prose.

At the beginning I am careful to let them see *no* ordinary French spelling; I think this is very important. There are certain words which they *will* mis-pronounce unless they are taught the words very thoroughly before they see them spelt, for instance, *voici, voilà crayon*. They must make the acquaintance of the new word from the sound and the sound only, but their impression of that sound is made clearer and more definite by the attention which they are obliged to give to it in order to classify it and give it its correct phonetic symbol. The method requires naturally that the work must be almost entirely oral. Almost the only written exercise one can give—apart from phonetic transcription itself—is to have the pupils write down English translations of what the teacher says in French. This is a good plan to catch the lazy ones, but I prefer usually to try to get the pupils to shew that they understand what I say, by replying to it.

As to results, some classes do much better than others, and during some terms things seem to go better than at other times, but I have felt on the whole well satisfied and should not like to go back to the old way. The only serious difficulty is due to the fact that other schools and teachers do not use the same method and when pupils change they are very much at sea. In one of my classes I was once obliged to begin work with the Grammar shortly after Christmas owing to a change in classes which brought in a large number of pupils who had been using the ordinary spelling.

Another difficulty is that of checking the pupil's work. With any method which is purely, or largely oral, it is possible for the lazy ones to shirk work in a large class, to an extent which is not possible if they are obliged to produce written exercises. I did not find this difficulty to the extent which I had feared, as a rule the classes are too interested not to keep busy. The form of examination, too, extends to keep them at work. I hold two examinations in the term, oral of course, the pupils reciting and reading individually.

I have occasionally been asked by students of the Faculty of Education who have seen my classes at work, whether I do not find that my pupils spell badly when they begin to do ordinary French exercises. I do not find this to be the case, and I believe that is the usual experience. Otto Jespersen says that there is a psychological reason for this, which is to be found "in the sharper perception which these pupils necessarily get of the difference between sound and writing, together with the fact that they are not compelled, like the others, to learn many things at a time (spelling, pronunciation, meaning, inflection), but the spelling is separated out as something which is to be learned by itself about words with whose pronunciation and meaning they have already become familiar." I believe this to be perfectly true. They do not as a rule attempt to spell a word which they have not seen in "real French," as my pupils call the ordinary spelling, but they ask how to spell *cahier* or *pupitre* just as they would with an English word which they knew only by sound.

What I have been saying has all been in reference to first form work. In my present school, where I have only been teaching during the present year, I make no use of phonetics in the upper forms at all, and even under other circumstances I have never used it extensively in the upper forms but have confined it to

occasional reading lessons, and of course made use of it constantly as a means of correcting mistakes in pronunciation. With a class which knows the phonetic alphabet it is always easy to say, "You used the open o there instead of the closed o," to write the word or phrase on the board in phonetic transcript, or to refer the class to the vocabulary in their High School Grammars or to a phonetic dictionary.

In conclusion let me quote a remark of Victor Spiers at the end of the preface to one of his "Reciters." The book consists of selections from French classics, prose and poetry, with the usual form on one page and the phonetic transcript opposite. He says "By the phonetic transcript, I hope to make many converts to the study of phonetics. Some British teachers may find the transcript useful on many a small point about which they perhaps had a slight doubt; but all will find that a mere study of the phonetic symbols and a little practice in transcription will so sharpen their ears as to enable them to detect and realize differences that they had not hitherto perceived; and their visits to France will become infinitely more profitable. They will find, in fact, that a new sense has been given to them."

CANADIAN PROSE WRITERS.

LAWRENCE J. BURPEE, OTTAWA.

It is said of a well-known American author that, standing upon the Goat Island side of Niagara, and no doubt striking an attitude of dramatic impressiveness, he dropped this extraordinary bit of wisdom: "I look across the cataract to a country without a history? What madness possessed that other American, Francis Parkman, that he devoted a lifetime of brilliant scholarship to a subject so hopelessly barren? And what profits it that we should talk of the prose writers of such a country, particularly as so many of them have been historians, mad historians? It remains a curious fact that if we analyse the subject-matter of the Canadian sections of our libraries, we find that it is to a very large extent the history of our own country; or rather what we have been led to believe was Canadian history. No doubt our compassionate American friend

would call it Canadian fiction. Let us take the bit in our teeth, however, and assert boldly that it *is* history; that it is history in the broadest sense of the term, rich in incident, in dramatic situation, in heroism, in manly achievement, even in political experience; that it is in fact a history of which no young country need feel ashamed. And with both feet on this vantage-point, snatched as it were from the enemy, it may be possible to survey, very briefly and imperfectly, the character of our prose literature.

As Dr. S. E. Dawson has well said, "Canadian literature and Canadian history open with the works of Samuel de Champlain." That dauntless explorer was also the first of Canadian prose writers. After him came a long line of men of the same vigorous type; Marc Lescarbot, poet as well as historian; Father Le Clercq; that mendacious traveller Hennepin, and the more brilliantly mendacious La Hontan; the heroic Jesuit Fathers, whose *Relations* form so important a part of our national literature; the entertaining historian La Potherie; Lafiteau, Sagard, and last, but not least, Charlevoix, to whom we owe more than to any other our knowledge of the history of New France. These were one and all men of action, as well as men of letters; men who could wield a sword as well as a pen; who conquered the wilderness before they sat down to describe its inhabitants.

With the close of the period of French rule in Canada, the curtain dropped for a time upon all that had gone before. French and English alike were too deeply concerned in the problems of the new régime to give much thought to what belonged to the past. The historians of this period of reconstruction, with few exceptions, devoted their pens to the burning questions of their own times, with such lack of perspective and balance as might be expected. Of works in English, Robert Christie's "History of Lower Canada from 1791 to 1841," is the most important; of French histories, Bibaud's is the earliest, Garneau's the most complete, and Ferland's, though incomplete, the most scholarly and valuable. Many years afterward, Benjamin Sulte produced his exhaustive "Histoire des Canadiens-Français," indispensable for a knowledge of the life of his people.

Since Confederation we have had a number of Canadian histories in English, the most important of which is, of course, the late Dr. Kingsford's monumental work in ten bulky volumes. It extends from the very beginnings of Canadian history down to

the Union of 1841. Dent's "Last Forty Years," though written before Kingsford's History, is practically a continuation of that work, at least so far as Ontario is concerned. Condensed histories of more or less value are those of Charles Roberts, the late Sir John Bourinot, McMullen and Withrow. Bedard, Turcotte and David, Gerald Hart, Casgrain, Verreau, Wm. Wood and James Douglas, to mention no others, have written local and special histories of value, but by far the most important of works of this character is Dr. Doughty's exhaustive "Siege of Quebec."

Of histories of the separate provinces, the most interesting from more than one point of view is Haliburton's "History of Nova Scotia." Murdoch's history of the same province is of much less value, either as history or literature. James Hannay's "History of Acadia," really belongs to New Brunswick. The number of histories devoted to Western Canada might well surprise anyone—say our American friend on the other side of Niagara—who supposes that the history of the prairies is not yet even in the making. Dr. George Bryce's "Manitoba," is a popular and readable history of that energetic little province—the home of "No. 1 Hard." By a curious coincidence, the history of the Northwest has been written by Alexander Begg, and the history of British Columbia by another writer of the very same name. We possess two histories of the Hudson's Bay Company, one by Dr. Bryce, the other by Beckles Willson—both monuments of inaccuracy; a third, by Miss Agnes Laut, appeared a few months since, but I have not yet had an opportunity of reading it. Abbé Dugas, the late L. R. Masson and Father Morice, may be mentioned among those of our French-speaking fellow-countrymen who have helped to throw light upon the early history of Western Canada.

All this is, of course, but the merest indication of the extent and character of Canadian historical literature, and leaves out of account altogether the material that has grown up about such special topics as the War of 1812, the Expulsion of the Acadians, the United Empire Loyalists, and the early settlement of Upper Canada. Much of our most important historical literature is to be found in the transactions of learned societies, and the pages of Canadian periodicals, especially the old *Canadian Monthly*. It is obvious, therefore, that in bulk the historical literature of Canada is prodigious. A mere bibliography of the subject would fill a large volume. One might swell with patriotic pride, if it were as

certain that the quality of this literature is equal to its bulk. That, it is to be feared, is a bird of quite another colour. Much of what we possess must be classed as material for history, rather than the finished article; some of it cannot even be safely regarded as useful material. We do not yet possess a thoroughly satisfactory history of Canada. Kingsford, almost alone among Canadian historians, recognized the vital importance of building upon the sure foundation of original documents. To that extent his work is satisfactory. But the historian must not merely use first-hand material; he must use it faithfully and impartially; and, if he would have it rank as literature, he must build with all the skill of the literary craftsman. Judged by such a standard, Kingsford's History cannot be given first rank. In the main it is reliable, but no one who has read it carefully can have failed to notice many evidences of a biassed mind; and as literature, it must take even lower rank.

If this criticism applies to Kingsford, it applies with even greater force to most of our other Canadian histories. Some, like Garneau and Dent, were violent partisans; others, such as Roberts, are entertaining but superficial. The great majority have been content to accept upon faith the statements of their predecessors, passing them along to another generation, coloured more or less by the writer's individual prejudices. Few indeed have had the courage or patience to trace each fact back to its source; and fewer still the desire or ability to interpret the original documents with judicial impartiality. It is curious, if not altogether enlivening, to trace the progress of an original misstatement in the pages of one of our earliest historians, through each subsequent generation of historical writers, up to the present time, the error gathering new strength and branching out in new and unexpected directions, each time it is transplanted, until at last it becomes a fearful and wonderful thing that its own original father would not begin to recognize. To some extent, of course, this weakness in our historical literature has been due to the fact that the original documents were not always available. Where such an excuse existed it is rapidly disappearing. Ontario, Quebec and Nova Scotia, all possess more or less fully-organized Archives; and the Dominion Archives at Ottawa, with the comparatively generous appropriations now available, is rapidly bringing together an unrivalled collection of manuscript material bearing on the history of Canada;

and, which is at least equally important, is rendering it conveniently accessible by means of exhaustive indexes and other bibliographical aids. Two recent examples of the effective use that may be made of the national Archives, are Egerton and Grant's "Canadian Constitutional Development," and Lucas's "Canadian War of 1812."

But it is time we turned to other branches of our prose literature. To a very large extent, books of travel, exploration or description, and biographies, should be considered rather as subdivisions of the great class, History, than as distinct classes of prose literature. For instance, one naturally groups the Voyages of Jacques Cartier and Champlain, of La Salle, Lahontan and Hennepin, of Captain Cook and Vancouver, under History, for they are part and parcel of the history of our country. For somewhat different reasons, the lives of our great political leaders cannot be separated from Canadian history. As a matter of convenience, however, some of them at least may be grouped together in a very imperfect and hasty review.

Books of travel relating to Canada, or what now constitutes Canada, fall naturally into two classes: those written by visitors from abroad; and those written by Canadians. Roughly speaking, the former may be said to relate to Eastern Canada, and the latter to Western Canada. There are, of course, exceptions, but the general cleavage is pretty much along these lines. With the first class we are not concerned at present. Consequently the main field of Canadian books of travel may be said to lie west of the Great Lakes—that region of gigantic proportions, constructed by Nature in one of her most opulent moods. These books owe their charm not so much to their literary value, as to the stirring pictures they present of that wonderful panorama of boundless plains, sea-like lakes, towering, snow-capped mountain-chains, and rivers that traverse half a continent. They are the simple, unpolished narratives of men of action, of the pathfinders of our limitless western heritage. Some of the best of this literature has never yet found its way into print; yet to those who will take the trouble to seek it in our National or other Archives, it offers a fascination that is altogether its own—the charm of the original document, with all its personal associations and suggestions. It is not difficult, as one picks up the faded manuscript of some fur-trader and explorer of a hundred or two hundred years ago, to read a great deal between

the lines. Here the paper is browned by the smoke of a camp-fire, or scorched in drying the ink too near the flames; here is a grease-spot of buffalo or moose steak; there the spray of a rapid has blurred a word or two, or perhaps whole pages are illegible, twisted out of shape, the ink smeared up and down the page, while one pictures the fur-trader's precious journal thrown from the upset canoe and fished up by some following paddle. Still more significant are the breaks in the narrative. The trader drops his pen to trade a fathom of tobacco, a handful of beads, a pound of powder or shot, for peltries or perhaps a supply of much-needed pemmican; he is interrupted by a drunken Indian, and pauses long enough to turn him out of the fort; a cry comes from without that buffalo are crossing the river, and he rushes to take a hand in the slaughter; the next day we perhaps get the story, graphic in its simplicity and directness. Then there comes a time when some real or fancied grievance brings down upon the fort a war party of fierce Sioux or Blackfeet; the trader pauses in the midst of a word, hears the menacing yell, grabs his gun and runs to guard the gate. The interrupted word is never finished. The grimy manuscript, with its fast-fading record of a forgotten life, is all that remains to tell the story of one who took his part in the stirring drama of western exploration and the fur-trade.

But without going beyond the bounds of the printed book, we possess a whole library of Canadian books of travel. The original editions are for the most part rare and inaccessible except in the larger libraries, but many are now available in good reprints, at very moderate prices. Samuel Hearne's *Journey to the Coppermine* is, unfortunately, not one of these, but it is quite possible that the Champlain Society, of Toronto, may before long bring this important and very readable narrative within reach of the average man's purse. Alexander Mackenzie's famous *Voyages to the Arctic and Pacific*, and Daniel Williams Harmon's *Travels*, can be had to-day for less than the price of a modern novel; and Gabriel Franchère's *Narrative* is included in the series of "Early Western Travels," edited by Dr. R. G. Thwaites. Dr. James Bain has given us a better and cheaper edition of Alexander Henry's "*Travels and Adventures*"; and the late Dr. Elliott Coues put a wealth of scholarship into his edition of the *Journals of Alexander Henry the Younger*, and *David Thompson*. These are but a few of the narratives that we may claim as our own—narratives of travel and

exploration, by Canadians, on soil that is now Canadian thanks very largely to the indomitable pluck and tireless energy of these very men.

We cannot pretend to possess, as yet, anything of the first rank in biography; anything that might stand beside Southey's Nelson, or Morley's Cromwell. It is perhaps not reasonable to even look for biography of the highest class as literature, in a comparatively immature country; any more than one should expect to find a Gibbon or a Gardiner, a Motley or a Fiske or a Parkman, among our Canadian historians. Yet we may count a number of books, in the Canadian biographical section of any of our libraries, possessing merit both in their matter and manner. Naturally enough, the great majority are devoted to the lives of Canadian statesmen. The biographies of Sir John Macdonald alone fill a respectable shelf. Of these, Joseph Pope's is the most complete, and Dr. Parkin's (in the "Makers of Canada" Series), the most readable. Of the other volumes in this series—in spite of some imperfections, a most commendable undertaking—perhaps the best are Dr. Le Sueur's "Frontenac," Miss McIlwraith's "Haldimand," and Professor Shortt's "Sydenham." If time permitted, it might be interesting to compare Read's "Simcoe" and "Brock," with the recent biographies by Duncan Scott and Lady Edgar; and Hodgins' "Ryerson," with Chancellor Burwash's life of the great educationalist; Lindsey's "William Lyon Mackenzie," will also have a rival in the biography written by Inspector Hughes. Bethune's "Bishop Strachan" is a useful work, but we could very well stand another life of that militant churchman and warm-hearted citizen, now that the dust of Upper Canadian politics has blown aside. French-Canadian literature counts several biographies of more than average merit, but it will not be possible to consider them here.

The most strikingly original of all Canadian writers, and the one that most nearly approached the first rank, is Thomas Chandler Haliburton—the inimitable "Sam Slick." Haliburton was not merely the "Father of American Humor," as Artemus Ward called him, but he also possessed to an unusual degree some of the essential qualities of a great novelist. His skill in character drawing, and his power of putting the breath of life into his figures, were as remarkable as his genius for painting in words the characteristic scenes of his native province. The "Illustrated London News," admirably defined the peculiar type of humour which belonged to

Haliburton, as "the sunny side of common sense." It is one of the curious coincidences of literature that his "Clockmaker" appeared just a year before that masterpiece, which it so strikingly resembles, "Pickwick Papers." R. G. Haliburton has pointed out that "Sam Slick" was the true father of two famous jokes. Sydney Smith's much-quoted saying as to a day being so hot that it would be a comfort to "take off our flesh and sit in our bones," had appeared some years before in the "Clockmaker"; and Haliburton's country girl who says, "I guess I wasn't brought up at all, I growed up," may very well have suggested Topsy's "spec I growed." The universal appeal of Haliburton's humour is shown by the fact that a well-thumbed copy was found in a log hut in the woods of the Mississippi valley; while another traveller met the "Clockmaker" in Hammerfest, the most northerly town in the world, where it was "a hobby and a text-book of the humorous Scotchman who was British consul at the time." It is also recorded that some fifty years ago "an able but eccentric Danish Governor at St. Thomas, in the West Indies, was noted far and wide for his excessive admiration for Sam Slick's works. Whenever a very knotty point arose before him and his Council, he used to say, 'We must adjourn till to-morrow. I should like to look into this point. I must see what Sam Slick has to say about it.'"

Mr. F. Blake Crofton, in summing up his criticism of Haliburton as man and writer, pays a warm tribute to his "exuberant humor, his sound judgment, his wide horizon, and the general beneficence of his aims." "Above all," he concludes, "I could never ignore his strong efforts to arouse a broader patriotism that might guard forever the imperial birthright, whose grandeur he was great enough to understand." Haliburton's name, indeed, deserves to be kept green in the heart of every true Canadian, not merely because he, of all Canadian writers, in prose or verse, approached most nearly to the rank of genius, but because through everything that he wrote, his serious books of history as well as his better-known books of humour, there runs the golden thread of an abounding and far-seeing faith in the future of his country, as part and parcel of the British Empire.

One dare not stretch your patience to the breaking-point by even attempting to review the large, and ever-growing, field of Canadian fiction. From 1769, when appeared Mrs. Brooke's "History of Emily Montague," the first novel written in Canada; and 1824,

when Mrs. Hart brought out "St. Ursula's Convent," the first novel published in what is now Ontario; the great god Romance has never been without a witness in this country. Major Richardson, James De Mille, Mrs. Leprohon, Mrs. Moodie, Mrs. Traill and Philippe Aubert De Gaspé, among our earlier novelists, and Wm. Kirby, Sir Gilbert Parker, Joseph Marmette, Charles Roberts, Lily Dougall, Mrs. Everard Cotes, Charles W. Gordon, Ernest Thompson Seton, W. A. Fraser, Agnes Laut, Arthur Stringer, Harvey O'Higgins, and a score of others among those of recent date, if not novelists of the first rank, are none the less writers of whom no Canadian need feel ashamed. Not the least characteristic features of their work, looking at it from a broad point of view, are its essentially wholesome tone, and the note of optimism which is as much a part of our literature as of our life. So long as our fiction, and our literature as a whole, remains wholesome, clean, sane and optimistic, we need not worry over it. Writers of genius will, no doubt, come in time, and they cannot possibly spring from a better soil.

SOME RECENT CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE STUDY OF ROMANCE LITERATURE.

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[Recent studies on the influence of Dante on English literature, by Koepfel, Kuhns, Sills, Toynbee, etc.; on Spanish, by Farinelli, Hutton, Sanvisenti, Savj-Lopez; on French, by Counson, Farinelli, etc.; on Goethe, by Sulger-Gebing, were first considered synthetically. Then followed a summary of Bédier's recent publications on the French epics and their relation to *voies de pèlerinage*. Finally the following appreciation of the first volume of Menéndez y Pelayo's *History of the Spanish Novel* was read.]

The originality and primacy of the Spanish novel, as well as its influence upon European literature, have long been recognized and appreciated. It remained, however, for the foremost critic of the Peninsula, Menéndez y Pelayo, to present a study of its rise and perfection in Spain itself and its influence abroad. In his introductions to the monumental edition of Lope de Vega's plays, and

in his numerous studies in other fields of Spanish literature, he has repeatedly had occasion to investigate special aspects of the novel. The present volume is but a rearrangement, with additions and connecting links, of these vāgrant essays.

To lovers of Spanish literature, the author of *The Origin of the Spanish Novel*, is as interesting as the work itself. Menéndez y Pelayo is an encyclopedic scholar of the Renaissance type, and as prolific as that other Spanish "monster of nature," Lope de Vega. In his familiarity with European literature, he suggests comparison with Saintsbury, but he excels the Edinburgh scholar in his mastery of a clear and graphic style. Known and respected by critics the world over for the extent and accuracy of his learning, for his incredible industry and his faculty of literary appreciation, he is at the same time the idol of the Spanish people. He expresses their sympathies and their prejudices—even at times their bigotry.

The present volume forms the introduction to the first of a series of Spanish texts, designed to continue the well known *Biblioteca de autores Españoles*, edited by Rivadeneyra during the third quarter of the past century. The study is divided into eight chapters, as follows: (1) A summary of the novel in classical antiquity; (2) The apologue and the Oriental tale; (3) Influence of Oriental tales on Spanish literature in the Middle Ages; (4) Books of chivalry; (5) Indigenous books of chivalry; (6) The sentimental novel; (7) The historical novel; and (8) The pastoral novel. A second volume studies short stories of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and a subsequent volume will deal with the picaresque novel and with Cervantes.

The first section is a masterly summary of a subject made familiar to students by Dunlop, Rhode, and Warren. The second chapter, on the Oriental apologue and tale, is more complicated and the treatment is less definitive. The critic here gives expression to what is now probably the most generally accepted opinion of Bédier's epoch-making work, *Les Fabliaux*: "This book is one of the most original and profound works of modern erudition, but probably extreme in its reaction; at all events what it attacks victoriously is not the *literary* influence of the Oriental tale, attested by so many translations and imitations, but the supposed Indian origin of popular tales." Spain's rôle as a transmitting medium of the Oriental tale cannot be doubted. The "*Disciplina clericalis*" of Peter Alphonsus is the *first* Occidental collection of Oriental

tales. Its immediate and all-pervading influence on European literature is readily granted. But Menéndez y Pelayo insists over much upon the importance of the Spanish version of the "Calita and Dymna." As a literary factor this translation was still-born, and the "Calita and Dymna" wrought its influence, even in the Peninsula, through the version made by John of Capua, in his "Directorium humane vite." The rôle played by the Arabs and Jews as intermediaries is, as the critic must confess, a subject imperfectly investigated. But the influence of the Oriental tale, whatever the medium, is very manifest, for example, in such fourteenth century writers as Juan Manuel and the Archpriest of Hita.

In chapter four the writer is on firmer ground. The Carolingian and Briton cycles, as well as the Byzantine novels, at an early date became part and parcel of Spanish literature. That they still delight the people is shown by the large number of chap-books, whose heroes are a Roland or a Clamades. It is this influence that the critic discusses in the subsequent chapter, in such works as the *Amaïs de Gaula*, *Tirante el Blanco* and others. Because of their close connection with "Don Quixote," the works here dealt with are of especial significance.

The author then passes to the sentimental novel and the influence of Boccaccio. The productions referred to in this section are hardly known to the uninitiated, even by name; Diego de San Pedro's *Carcel de Amor*, Juan de Flores' *Grisel y Mirabella*,—but they played a not unimportant part in the evolution of Peninsular literature prior to and during the great classical period. The same is true of chapter seven, in which the historical novel and the novel of travel are discussed. These works must needs have exerted a profound influence upon Spanish chronicle and historical plays; and novels like *The Abencerraje* and the *Civil Wars of Granada* early became known beyond the bounds of the Peninsula. It is in this type of production, as also in the picaresque novel, that Spain made its most original contribution to European literature.

The closing chapter has to do with the pastoral novel, and treats, in a scholarly way, a branch of literature made familiar by the pastoral works of Spenser and Sydney, or their prototypes, Sannazaro's "Arcadia" and Montemayor's "Diana."

The subject studied by the Spanish critic is too vast for one man—it is in fact universal literature. Menéndez y Pelayo has shown himself conversant with the best authorities from Loiseleur

Deslongchamps to Chauvin; he has kept abreast of the times by systematic perusal of some of the best foreign journals; but he reveals at the same time, and often in a most unfortunate way, the limitations of even such an omniverous reader as we know him to be. How often is he caught napping! He still asks what are *El libro de las trufas de los pleitos de Julio Cesar* and the *Libro del oso*. But only a literary historian like Menéndez y Pelayo could present so vast a subject clearly, and indicate with such precision what is exotic and what is native in the Spanish novel, and at the same time trace its subsequent history in the literatures of the North.

A CANADIAN'S EXPERIENCE IN SUMMER SCHOOLS IN EUROPE.

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A cool refreshing breeze, an early morning walk on the deck of an ocean liner just off the great banks of Newfoundland, en route for Europe;—a chance acquaintance among the other passengers working up an appetite by taking a mile and a half's walk before breakfast, the chance acquaintance, a young French-Canadian school-teacher from near Montreal; and our summer schooling has begun earlier than we anticipated. For our conversation is in French, and every day we shall find that our ability, imperfect as it may be, to speak the language, will enable us to find agreeable and profitable companionship among the French-Canadian passengers so numerous on the steamer. In fact, as one settles himself in his steamer-chair to write a letter, it often seems easier to write it in French, so many round about him are heard speaking the language. It is like a delightful breeze from the land to which we are sailing, and we are impatient to reach our destination, and hear that language on its native soil in the beautiful fields of Normandy or along the thronging boulevards of lovely Paris.

But upon enquiry it seemed best that I should not remain then in France but should go on to Grosz-Lichterfelde-West,—a pretty German rural town not far from Berlin. Here, as I had heard, a former lecturer of the University of Marburg has established a private school for instruction in modern languages.

Before the professor will consent to accept me as a pupil, I must agree to remain at least a month, and during that time to speak, read or write no word of English, whether on the premises or not. An exception is made in connection with one's correspondence. What shall I do, however, if I do not know or cannot think of the word to express the idea I have in mind? "Then say nothing," replies the professor. It seems that in this Institute the old proverb has been revised to read, "Speech is German, Silence is English."

Occasionally one's honesty is put to rather a severe test in connection with this pledge to speak no English. On one occasion, along with some fellow-students, I was lunching in Berlin. A young Englishman in the party acted as spokesman. "Kellna! Beah!" he called. When the impudent waiter said in good Anglo-Saxon, "The gentlemen speak English," our friend denied it emphatically, although his speech betrayed him.

And now, I wake one morning to find myself lying in a comfortable bed in a large front room, with a bay-window. If, as in the case of most of the students' room, my window opened on a pleasant balcony which is such a feature of German houses, my quarters would leave nothing to be desired.

The bell which roused me at half past seven will ring again at eight o'clock for breakfast. Entering the Esszimmer, I take my seat at one of the two tables spread for twelve or fourteen students, greet those already assembled with the salutation "Mahlzeit," and am similarly greeted in return. The Dienstmädchen serves me first with oatmeal porridge poorly cooked, a couple of fried eggs and a cup of tea, this last item being the more enjoyed since breakfast is the only meal at which anything to drink, even water, is served in the Institute. To be sure, if one asks specially for water at any time he may have it, but one always has the feeling that in so doing he is asking for favors. I must not forget to mention as part of this meal those delicious breakfast rolls without which no French or German breakfast seems complete. Marmalade or jam of some kind adds the finishing touches to this morning meal.

At nine o'clock we all assemble in the class-room to begin our morning's work. We shall probably find that the professor has been there before us and has written on the blackboard the text of some German song which we are to copy into our note-books. The

writing is not in the Roman characters nor yet in the German script, but in the phonetic symbols with which Le Maitre Phonétique has made us somewhat familiar. Not only has it the ordinary punctuation but it is divided into breath-groups in which the syllables bearing the stress are marked to facilitate reading. When the Professor enters with his rather feverish than cheery "Guten Morgen," he reads a line at a time, having the class of twenty or twenty-five students repeat it in unison after him.

After an intermission of ten minutes we have additional drill in Phonetics. It is probable that we have had to prepare for today a minute description of the sounds in such phrases as, "Ich habe meinen Geldbeutel verloren," written phonetically in German, French, English, Italian and Spanish. In chorus we spell each word phonetically, naming the syllables and pointing out where the sentence stress lies. Then some one in the class is called upon to describe some particular sound in a word, assigning it to its proper place on the phonetic chart. Very interesting was it to hear the modifications of tone given to the English phrase, "I've lost my purse," by representatives from all parts of the British Empire. These modifications ranged all the way from the decided burr with which my Scotch friend sitting next to me delivered his purse, (for what Scotchman would ever deliver his purse without a strong burr) to the entire elimination of the *r* by our cockney friend behind, whose *r* was probably in his pocket-book when he lost his pœs.

Another intermission and then we shall gather it may be to listen to a lecture on Goethe's life and works, or to read and analyze phonetically some simple French text. Wednesday afternoon a French lady will be with us to conduct conversation classes, while similar opportunities are afforded for learning to speak Spanish and Italian.

As there is a little time left before Mittagessen, we are told to spend it writing a letter in the German script. Those who are not familiar with the characters must take their copy-books, and through the tissue-paper leaves, trace in German as we did in English so many years ago such simple phrases as: "Der Anfang ist schwer. Übung macht den Meister."

It is refreshing to feel oneself a mere school-boy once more.

With a real school-boy's appetite we welcome the dinner bell at one o'clock. From how many different parts of the world have

those about the table come. On my left sits the young son of the professor, born in Germany, and though of British parentage, unable to speak a word of English. On my right is a young American from Cape Cod, a graduate of Dartmouth College, New Hampshire; next to him a young school-teacher from Australia; next, a young doctor from Scotland. At the head of the table sits the professor himself, an Australian by birth, while on his right is a teacher from Cork, and next to him a pedagogue from Wales. Beside him again sits an undergraduate of Oxford. As the sole representative from Canada that summer, I formed one link in the chain of representatives of the wide-spreading British Empire.

After dinner we all adjourn to the Professor's private room where we spend a cheerful hour, singing joyous student songs which not only help to brighten the day, but serve their purpose in aiding us in our pronunciation. These are the songs, the texts of which we copied in the morning from the blackboard. As we sing them over, perhaps there comes a touch of longing for the land and friends far away, while we swell the chorus

Andre Städtchen kommen freilich,
 Andre Mädchen zu Gesicht
 Ach, wohl sind es andre Mädchen
 Doch die eine ist es nicht.

The Singenstunde over, we are usually free to do as we will until Abendessen at seven o'clock. During this spare time, however, we must have our hour's walk and German conversation along with our tutor, each tutor having at the most, two students at a time. Many of us found it convenient to get through this part of the work before breakfast, leaving the afternoon free for Tennis, Swimming or Sightseeing. Berlin with its splendid avenues, its magnificent monuments, and its museums stored with treasures of art, may be reached in twenty minutes by rail for the moderate sum of five cents.

Those who happen to be around the Institute about 3.30 p.m. may partake of a light lunch of brown bread and cocoa, served in the library. Classes are resumed in the evening at eight o'clock, and continue till ten. These are optional and are conducted by daughters of the professor, the subjects being Dictation taken down phonetically, and conversations based on pictures, for the purpose

of enlarging one's vocabulary. At one of the evening intermissions we are treated to lemonade in the class-room. In this, perhaps, lies a suggestion for the cure of the oft-repeated request, "May I get a drink?"

Ten o'clock is striking, the lights in the hall-way begin to fade, and in a few moments as we stealthily grope our way along dark corridors "like a guilty thing surprised," we remember the regulation that every man must be in his own-room by ten o'clock. Usually we are tired enough to go to bed by that time, as the day has been a well-filled one, and not till from below our windows the heavy tramp of a company of the Kaiser's troops going out for early morning drill awakens us, shall we know anything more.

It is Saturday night. Two of our fellow-students are to leave for Marburg next week to try Prof. Viëtor's examination in Phonetics, and to-night we all gather in the concert-room of the Kaiser Wilhelm-Restaurant to give them a send-off. After a social time together with many a hearty chorus, we probably end up with "Auf Brüder, frohen Mutes, auch wenn uns Trennung-droht.

And now comes round* a time to which we have long been looking forward—a visit in a body to the royal City of Potsdam, long the favorite summer home of Prussian kings, and German emperors. One part of our course has dealt with Germany architecture, and this excursion to Potsdam is undertaken in order that we may study at first-hand the types of those different periods that we have been considering in the class-room. To some of us, however, the chief interest lies in the historical associations which cluster round such striking characters as Frederick the Great, and Napoleon Bonaparte, for it was in Potsdam that the former lived and died, after having successfully stood alone against Europe in defence of his own land; and it was to his tomb that the latter likewise standing alone against Europe but with a less noble purpose, came to pay his respects. As we enter the Garrison Kirche, hung with many a banner snatched from the enemy on the field of battle, we are met and escorted to a very small room behind the pulpit, where in the simplest of coffins lie the remains of the Great Frederick. The story is told that here in the course of his victorious progress through Europe came Napoleon Bonaparte. As he stood covered before that tomb, his officers said to him, "Uncover, Sire, were he here, we had not been here."

But meanwhile we have almost forgotten our party that left Grosz-Lichterfelde, thirty-four in all, each man carrying in his pocket a breakfast roll, for it has been rumored we shall have no time for dinner. A visit has been paid to the beautiful Nicolai Kirche, that splendid monument of the genius of the architect Schinkel, who has done so much to beautify both Berlin and Potsdam; then to the Stadtschloß of Frederick the Great; then along those canals which the same monarch had constructed through the city to make it resemble a part of Holland; and finally, like the three black flies of our nursery rhyme, they all dropped into the bakery shop over the way—right opposite the Garrison Church of which we have spoken above. Our professor and guide invites us to fill up, an invitation which does not need to be repeated. Buns, ginger cookies, pies and nameless sweets disappear in far less time than it takes to make them, while an extra “goody” is carefully wrapped up, and stowed away in a capacious pocket for future requirements. But the poor storekeeper and his two assistants, amazed at the appetite of English youths, has not taken precaution to keep a record of what has been taken. Stationing himself at the door after the manner of a customs officer, he requires each man to give an account of what he has eaten, and what goods he has in his pocket. For the former, at least, native honesty must be trusted, or a surgical operation resorted to.

And now, off to the beautiful park of Sans Souci with its cosy little palace of the same name, perched on a high elevation reached by a succession of beautiful terraces, each gorgeous in its own peculiar flowers and fruits. Here we could not but agree with the judgment of Frederick the Great when he abandoned the city palace with its surrounding din, for this quiet abode, where, as he said, “Quand je suis ici, je serai sans souci.” After strolling through the quiet little palace where this admirer of French art and literature entertained Voltaire, we wander about the beautiful park, visit the new palace, the summer home of the present emperor, and hasten back to Grosz-Lichterfelde.

Our stay in Germany is drawing to a close, and it is with a good deal of regret that we take our leave of many whose friendship we had learned to prize. But Paris lures us away.

I wish I could take you all along with me on part of that journey, the day spent on the Rhine, no lovelier, perhaps, than our own St. Lawrence with its Thousand Islands, but breathing an

atmosphere, and song of ivy-mantled peace made dearer by the consciousness of the din of battle with which those now ruined castles once resounded. It was a fitting close to the day, that just as twilight shadow fell, we could enter the magnificent Cologne Cathedral, and gazing up at those lofty arches, tinted with the soft light from the beautiful colored windows, we could feel ourselves one with those many worshippers, who in the last 700 years, had felt their souls lifted, as it were, on those grand fluted pillars, to heights above the dull cares of ordinary life.

Arriving, at last, at Paris, we find that the course of the Alliance Francaise is almost over, and we take instead that of the International Guild. This organization, recognized by the Sorbonne, the English Board of Education, and the University of Chicago, carries on, in addition to its winter's work, a very helpful summer course. If you will go with me this morning to the Guild's rooms, we shall find, perhaps, eight or nine young men and women, mostly English and American, seated around a table, engaged in conversation in French with the French teacher. The theme set yesterday for to-day's discussion is a comparison of modes of life in France, England and America, and it is interesting to discover how each nation sees itself, and is seen by others.

Following this we unite with the other sections for a lesson on Phonetics given by a pupil of Paul Passy. The piece of phonetic transcription that we handed in a week ago is returned to us corrected, and special comment made by the teacher on sounds that have been frequently misrepresented. A paragraph is dictated, while we write it phonetically, this being afterwards examined. A drill on an additional sound is then taken up, a list of words containing the same sound is given for home study, with suggestions as to how the sound may be acquired. Along with the lists of words are sentences to be read in which the same sound constantly recurs, for example:—Part, renard, gardle, malade, Ce monarque a pris ses armes pour aller à la chasse au renard dans le département de la Marme.

Or it may be that instead of this lesson in Phonetics, we have to-day a grammatical and literary commentary of a piece of French prose, instruction, questioning and answering, being entirely in French. Later we shall listen to a lecture on the great men, the great deeds, and the great ideas of the sixteenth century. Another day we shall take our own English copy of "Cranston," or of "Idle

Thoughts of an Idle Fellow," and turn it into French. The morning's work, and that means the day's work, will close, it may be, with a lecture on some period of French literature. This lecture, illustrated by selections from the works of the authors considered, will show us the literature of the period as a natural development and manifestation of the spirit of the age in which it was written.

But to-morrow is Thursday, a school holiday in France, and instead of taking up our regular studies, we shall all go together under the guidance of one of our professors to visit one or other of the historical spots that abound in Paris. Or we shall take the train to Versailles, and in the château and gardens get some idea of the splendor and luxury in which Louis XIV. and his successors lived whilst their subjects were dying of starvation. We shall wander through those magnificent gardens, along avenues lined with statuary, coming ever and anon upon undreamt-of little bits of woodland paradises, where in secluded arbors we find sweet seclusion, emerging again upon one of the numerous fountains that flash back the sun-light, and without disturbing the stillness of the woods, render them musical. Yet in the enjoyment of all this beauty, no longer the property of the king, but of the nation, we cannot but feel that the scene has lost much of its picturesqueness in the substitution of the sober gray and black of the present pedestrians for the brilliant colors of the dashing nobles and the gentle manners of the courtly dames of a couple of centuries ago.

While in Paris, I took one lesson from the Berlitz School of Languages, in order to get some idea of the method there employed. From what I could gather through enquiry of my teacher, it seemed that it was customary for pupil and teacher to engage in conversation in French, the range of vocabulary being gradually extended, pronunciation being criticised by the teacher, and the work supplemented by reading lessons and written exercises.

I have endeavored in my weak way to give such an idea of the nature of the work carried on in one or two summer schools in Europe as I myself, before going, would have desired. One prominent feature in connection with all of these was the maximum attention given to pronunciation and the minimum attention to grammar. After taking such a course, one feels almost drawn to follow the same method. It must be remembered, however, that in almost every case, those who go to these schools are persons who have been already well-grounded in grammar and whose chief aim

in taking the course is to enable them to speak the language correctly, whereas probably few of our students will ever require a practical speaking knowledge of French or German.

To those who have looked upon a couple of months' holiday work in Europe as a thing to be desired, but have hesitated as to whether it was worth the expense, I would say that it is not so expensive as is often thought, and that not only is there pleasure and profit in it at the time, but the memory becomes stored with recollections which are a joy in after years.

ARE THE RESULTS OF OUR MODERN LANGUAGE STUDY SATISFACTORY?

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In any attempt to determine what results we should look for in a general system of instruction, we must attach the highest importance to the needs of the greatest number. In our schools the majority of our students will receive from two to four years' school training in the languages. Only the limited number who afterwards continue these studies as a part of a university course pursue them farther than the High School leaving examination, while the few who ever require to speak a foreign tongue are almost a negligible quantity. The necessity of a compromise which, while benefiting all, shall ensure the best results for the majority, is obvious. It is now generally admitted that the prime object of language study in the schools of this country and of the United States is to acquire the ability to read and enjoy the literature of the foreign language. This does not exclude other objects; but they are to be regarded as by-products of the general process, some of them very important in themselves, some valuable as aids to the main object.

Thus the ability to pronounce with tolerable correctness is a natural accompaniment of the ability to understand. In a modern language, at least, we must not only know but feel that language is primarily for the ear and the tongue, only secondarily for the eye and the pen. Only so far as this is realized do we enter into the spirit of the language. I would extend the formula of our

linguistic aims so as to make the main object "to read and understand, and to understand when read by another the works of foreign writers." But is not this asking too much? Is it possible for the many who receive only three or four years' teaching? I hold that it is quite possible to develop a taste for a foreign literature in that time, to acquire the necessary amount of grammatical knowledge, to learn to pronounce and to understand when read aloud by another a considerable number of books. If the method has had its proper effect, the taste acquired will do the rest, and the pupil will not only have the ability, but the desire to continue the study by himself. Without this desire, much of our school work is of little value beyond its disciplinary effect.

That these results are not attained by the methods now in general use will, I think, be readily admitted. Leaving out of account the relatively small number of honor matriculants, who are preparing themselves for a more advanced course in the languages, and keeping in mind the great majority who take Pass Matriculation, Junior or Senior Leaving examinations, and whose training in the languages will probably extend no farther, we are forced to the conclusion that their linguistic attainments are only fit for the burial that awaits them. These students can translate fairly difficult French or German into English; but the process is laborious and uninviting. They have an extensive knowledge of the Grammars; more minute, perhaps, than is ever necessary, and lacking co-ordination with the other branches of their linguistic training. Too close attention to the unusual and the difficult, and too little practice in the use of the easier and more normal develop a timid cautiousness like that of a blind-folded person, holding his hands before him and stepping high even when there is no obstacles in the way. This attitude of mind is very prevalent, even with advanced students in the Universities. It is well to be cautious; but the over-cautious are as likely to err as the over-confident.

Coming to the subject of pronunciation, my impression is that the great majority of our students do not pronounce the foreign languages well enough. Nor do they understand with sufficient readiness what they hear spoken or read. In fact, many of them, and especially Senior Leaving candidates, do not appear at all anxious about pronunciation, and actually lose ground in this regard as the time for examination approaches.

For the examinations are the cause of the whole trouble. Many of the teachers of Modern Languages begin well, and would continue well if they could follow their own inclinations; but so long as success in study or in teaching is measured solely by the results of written examinations they will be forced at some point of time to invert the natural order of linguistic study, which is "First the ear, then the eye." The course of study does not afford time enough to do the work properly, and at the same time achieve success at examinations. Is there no remedy, no way of obtaining the best results from Modern Language study? Better have no examinations at all; although that would be an extreme remedy. But the plan of accepting certificates from the candidates' schools is in very general use in the United States; the same method is largely employed in Germany; and already we, in Ontario, have adopted the principle in some subjects. Can we not at least make a compromise in the matter of Modern Languages, which probably suffer more than any other subject by being judged solely by a written test? I would suggest that there be an examination, the character of which would be modified to meet the change of methods, and that the candidate be also required to possess a certificate showing that the aural and oral side of the work has been properly done? I for one would think more of such a certificate from any reputable school than of the present Junior Matriculation certificate.

Let me in conclusion add an enumeration of the main features of language teaching as it is now being done in Germany. I borrow them from an excellent little book by Miss Brebner, published by Messrs. Clay and Sons, of London.

1. Reading forms the centre of instruction.
2. Grammar is taught inductively.
3. The foreign language is used as much as possible throughout.
4. There are regular conversation exercises at every lesson.
5. The teaching is connected with the daily life of the pupil.
6. Objects and pictures are used in the earlier stages.
7. *Realien* are used extensively, especially in the later stages.
8. Great attention is paid to pronunciation throughout, and especially at the beginning.

9. Free composition is largely substituted for translation into the foreign language.

10. Translation into the mother tongue is reduced to a minimum.

This Reformed method began to be used in the schools about 1884.

In 1891 the Prussian Ministry of Education drew up regulations enforcing the main principles of the Reform. One paragraph from the Prussian Syllabus reads: "That direct object of instruction in foreign languages is to enable the pupils to understand fairly easy French and English authors, and to comprehend spoken English and French, also to use with a certain amount of fluency the simple forms of daily intercourse, both orally and in writing. Its indirect object is to open up to the pupils' minds, as far as possible, the culture and civilization, the life and customs of both foreign nations."

My own formula is somewhat less detailed, as you will remember; but if a proper method be adopted the main results will be the same. I attach less importance to the actual ability to speak the language, believing that in our schools it is not an end in itself, but that a sufficient measure of it will be attained in the nature of what I have called a bye-product of the methods employed to obtain the other results. Its greatest value is an indirect one—that of facilitating the work of the teacher on the one hand, and on the other giving the pupil a more thorough grasp of the language.

METHODS AND THE TEXT-BOOK.

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This brief paper on Methods and the Text-book is intended to follow along the same channel of thought as the two excellent papers which have just preceded it, that by Dr. James on Our Methods in Modern Language Study, and by Miss Willson, on the Use of Phonetic Methods.

The question of method and the question of text-books seem to be indissolubly linked with one another. It is perfectly true that a good teacher will always use good methods of his own, regardless

of the text-book which may be placed in his hands; and it is equally true that no matter how good and how sound may be the pedagogic principles displayed in the text-book, that text-book will avail but little in the hands of a poor teacher. Especially are these statements true in the consideration of modern languages, where in my humble opinion, the personality of the teacher is the greatest factor in the imparting of a true and lasting knowledge.

In our own Province of Ontario in our secondary or High Schools, the matter of the use of the text-book has not been left to the teacher's choice alone, but has been made the subject of regulations. According to these regulations we should not, though many teachers do, make use of any text-book whatever in our earliest training, and when later we revert to the text-book, we must perforce make use of those approved by the aforesaid regulations, namely:—The High School French Grammar and Reader, and the High School German Grammar and Reader of whose suitability more shall be said anon.

On general principles, this might be said to be a wise regulation inasmuch as a freedom of choice would lead to great confusion and a possible lowering of the standard. Pupils moving from school to school would be at a complete loss where a different text-book was in use. But would this confusion be really as great as might be feared?

The Regulations of the Education Department demand that no text-book be used in the lower school classes for at least the first four months. The work to be undertaken is to be largely oral, great attention being paid to pronunciation and to colloquial expressions. Grammar is to be taught inductively from the material supplied by the teacher, who is expected to give as thorough a training as possible in the essentials. Translation should be kept in the back-ground as much as possible, and the pupil should be instructed to formulate questions and to make replies in the foreign tongue.

Granting that this would seem to be a desirable course for beginners, does it necessarily follow that it is best that no text-book should be used? On first considerations it would seem to be a very advantageous proposition. The most perfect freedom has thus been granted to the teacher. He need no longer teach in the way that a text-book suggests, but may proceed by the Phonetic Method, the Berlitz system, the Cumulative system, or any other

that he specially fancies, or he may produce a system of his own, unlike anything else on the broad green earth. He is not bound down by the limits of Grammar or vocabulary, but has perfect freedom to teach the numerals if he chooses, before he deals with the definite article; or he may teach the feminine of adjectives in his first lesson. His vocabulary he may choose from the classroom, play-ground, the home or the street. He may make use of pictures or drawings to aid in avoiding the use of the mother tongue, and to stimulate interest in the foreign one.

The teacher learns to depend more upon himself and less upon the text-book, his own personality enters more into his teaching and he becomes more expert as time goes on in determining what are the best and most important things to be taught.

Of course, it is necessary to give the pupils notes. Here apparently, is another obvious advantage. The pupil does not depend on a book or printed text; he carefully copies down from the blackboard the vocabularies placed there by the teacher—all with the greatest care and strictest fidelity. This exercise is of great educational value, no doubt.

Again, where a text-book is used, an enterprising pupil sometimes anticipates the teacher, who is not going fast enough to suit this industrious boy, who proceeds to supplement what he is getting and anticipates the teacher by his own adventurous wanderings into pastures green, whereby he learns to make mistakes which his preceptor would have him avoid.

So far then, in favor of using no text-book whatever. On the other hand, what special advantages does the text-book afford? It is not necessarily true that a text-book binds the teacher down to any prescribed course or method. He may use it as a general guide to his work, as a sort of time-saver. Time lost in putting work on the blackboard may be used with still greater advantage in drilling the pupils in essential knowledge.

Again, an inexperienced teacher is always at a loss to know when and how to begin. Experience alone will impart this knowledge, and it is a great mistake to allow every new teacher to experiment again and again and upon the classes placed under his charge, before he settles upon what he thinks to be a good plan. A great deal of teaching power is thus evaporated, the work is done in a haphazard and desultory fashion, that is discouraging to both teacher and pupil alike. My own experience, borne out by that of

many others whom I have consulted, is that while teaching without a text-book brings out the best teaching force and ingenuity of the teacher, it leads to a certain haziness and uncertainty in the scholar's knowledge. To a certain kind of questioning the pupil may seem very responsive, but if asked to formulate in any way what he has learnt, he displays most deplorable and befogged results. If, however, the text-book is based on sound pedagogic principles, and is the production of a teacher who has made ample trial of it in his own actual teaching, we have a safer guide than the untrained, untried judgments of the tyro.

Some teachers would advise oral work altogether. Do no writing at all, or very little, and above all, do not trouble the pupil to write down any French at all. Let it be *all oral*, paying strict attention to pronunciation and not introducing orthography, which is most confusing to the pupil. If the work is taken down, they say, it is likely to be incorrect, or done in a careless way which leads to all kinds of ineradicable errors. On the other hand, it is replied, the teacher should look over the books and see that everything is correctly done. Unfortunately, however, teachers are limited like any other people by the barriers of time, and such supervision is not always possible. Where no notes are taken down at all, the pupil depends on his hearing alone, and is therefore exercising only one faculty where he might, to advantage, be employing two or three.

The three greatest disadvantages when pupils copy down the work into note-books are these:—

1st. No provision can be made for the pupil who is absent for two or three weeks through sickness, nor for the one who begins to attend the school a month later than the rest. It is not a sufficient remedy to tell such a pupil to copy the notes and vocabulary that he has missed; since these have been used with certain explanations and teaching accompanying them, without which they have very little value to the student. Pupils frequently lose or misplace these note books.

2nd. Pupils who go from one school to another find themselves severely handicapped by the different system and the lack of a text-book for reference.

3rd. There is a great loss of time.

From the practical standpoint of the teacher it would seem, therefore, that even with beginners' classes some sort of text-book

is very desirable to give system and accuracy to the teaching, and to save valuable time. Where a teacher has three half-hour lessons a week in French during the first year, at least one of these must be lost every week in the mechanical copying of work from the black-board; time that could be better utilized by a judicious drill in matter supplied by a text-book.

But the present French and German grammars are not suitable for such beginners' classes if the aim of Departmental regulations is to be sought. The reason for such a statement would not need to be elaborated before any audience of teachers who have been making use of either of these text-books. Nor need this be construed into an attack on these excellent handbooks. The present French grammar is, to my mind, the best we have ever used, and a great improvement on anything previously authorized. Unfortunately, however, it emphasizes at the very outset the question of translation, and the introduction of a phonetic and nomic system into the same exercise must lead to confusion in the scholar's mind. If the phonetic symbols are ignored, then a valuable aid to effective training in pronunciation is put aside. In point of fact, this is done by the majority of our teachers. If these symbols are employed together with the ordinary orthography the pupil's attention is divided. One thing at one time would seem to be better; namely, PHONETICS ALONE.

For beginners in German, the same sort, of course, does not seem to be as necessary or as desirable. The great majority of students do not find the same difficulty in regard to pronunciation or orthography that they would encounter in learning French, but, at the same time, the present text-book is very unsuitable for younger pupils, principally on account of the excessive amount of grammatical theory that accompanies such exercises in the present German grammar. Added to this there is the unsuitability of the vocabulary that is employed. It is by no means the one with which pupils meet when they begin to read an ordinary book, but rather, one which is intended to illustrate the grammatical difficulties of the language. While this German Grammar was a great improvement on any that were in use in our schools before, it is now lamentably behind the progress that has been made in language method reform. This fact, I rejoice to say, has been recognized by its authors, and a new one is in course of preparation, which, we earnestly hope, will meet the needs and views of the teachers of Modern Languages.

A great deal might also be said of the unsuitability of the present readers. The extracts in them are not graded at all, nor are they of the sort that stimulate interest in the foreign tongue. In the French Reader, my own opinion would be, that well-selected, well-graded stories from modern French authors would be better than the selections from Lamennais, Perrault, Molière, and other writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Let us have modern living French; but such selections as Hugo's "Waterloo," are away beyond the comprehension and appreciation of the Junior Matriculation student. Similarly in regard to the selections in the German Reader where such extracts as Rotkäppchen, Das Eiserne Kreuz, Der Riese Goliath, Nicotiana and others, are a grief and a vexation of spirit to every teacher who must, year after year, wearily and laboriously take them up in his classes. If we must have a reader, let it be revised and modernised.

But what remedy can be suggested to bring about an improvement in the pronunciation of French, and in the imparting of a working knowledge of every-day modern French and German?

First, in regard to French. I am firmly persuaded in my own mind that the use of phonetic symbols in beginners' classes is of the greatest value and utility. Unfortunately the greater number of our modern language teachers have not pursued this branch of study with a view to its introduction into the class-room. Those who have attempted it found themselves handicapped by a lack of easy, graded phonetic works, which moreover they can not ask the pupils to purchase.

In his recent work on "How to Teach a Foreign Language." Mr. Otto Jespersen makes this statement: "The use of phonetics and of phonetic transcription in the teaching of modern languages may be considered as one of the most important advances in modern pedagogy." We, in America, seem to be the last to realize the truth of this statement inasmuch as we are the last to seriously adopt phonetics in our teaching methods. The French, German, Danish, Scottish and English Schools are all making use of the new system with most favorable results.

During the last two or three years a great many books have been published of which the following would be found of most valuable service to the progressive teacher:

1. The Sounds of the French Language, by Paul Passy, translated by D. L. Savory and D. Jones. Clarendon Press, 1907.

2. The Teaching of Modern Languages, by Leopold Bahlsen, Boston, Ginn & Co., 1907.

3. Phonetic Dictionary, Fr.-Eng., Eng.-Fr. Hinds, Noble & Eldridge, New York,

4. Siepmann's Primary French Course—First 10 lessons in Phonetic transcript. McMillan's, 1906.

5. First Book of Fr. Oral Teaching, Calvert & Hartog.

First 60 lessons in phonetic transcript. Rivingtons, 1906,

All teachers may not be able to take a course of study in France or Germany, but the careful study of the system with these books as a guide would be most beneficial and instructive.

For beginners' classes in French we should like to have one of two alternatives.

1st. Let the teacher be free to use in the first year any phonetic text that he thinks will answer his purpose. For example, let him take the first Book of Oral Teaching (Rivingtons'), an excellent hand book, but with one great objection. The pupils are always addressed as *tu*, a form of address which our pupils would do well to avoid, and in ordinary circumstances would have no occasion to use. If later in their lives, on some visit to France or Germany, they should form ties of affection which would justify the use of the second sing, pronoun of address, there is no doubt that they would soon attain a proficiency in its use. The same objection might be urged against Siepmann's Primary French Course.

2nd. The second alternative is to have a book specially prepared containing the first fifteen or twenty lessons in the present French Grammar put into phonetic transcription, the lessons being printed with the symbols adopted by the International Phonetic Association.

In this transcription there would be simply the headings of the grammar to be taught in the lesson, with directions (also in phonetic type) to the teacher as to the best methods to employ in the use of these exercises. Translation from English into French would be omitted altogether, and the work of the pupils would be almost wholly in pronunciation, and in the learning of colloquial expressions. The vocabulary would also be re-arranged without the English meanings attached to the words, but the definite article form given with each substantive, instead of adding the letter M or F, as at present.

The teaching of the Grammar might thus be made more inductive, this part of the class exercise being conducted, of course, in English. It would be well also if illustrations, could be procured which would accompany these exercises. If he wished to do so, the teacher would be free to use oral translation exercises, to assure himself that his class is thoroughly understanding each lesson.

Not more than twenty exercises of the present grammar, with the tenses of the regular verbs also supplied would form an ample basis for the first year's work. During the second year these exercises might then be reviewed in the present French Grammar, and the Orthography, which would be the principal object of the review, could be taken up with special care. Besides this advantage of improved pronunciation, the pupil would have learned thoroughly the phonetic symbols and the sounds they represent, and would then have a solid basis for his own future work in the study of the language. From the outset the Modern Language should be treated as a living language, and from the very beginning the method and the material should illustrate this fact.

In regard to German, some change is absolutely necessary with beginners' classes, but as there is a chance of a new and improved text-book we can afford to wait a little.

But some change should be effected in regard to the readers, which should be completely reorganised with a view to fulfilling the following conditions:

(1) The language should be that of modern French and German life.

(2) The extracts should reveal something of the true national life, characteristics and ideals of the people.

(3) The extracts should be such as lend themselves to oral work and reproductive exercises.

(4) They should be arranged, as nearly as possible, in the order of their difficulty.

(5) They should not all require to be read every year but certain selections in alternate years.

As far as the text-books are concerned which are put on the curriculum to supplement the readers, the variance in their style, and difficulty is often almost ludicrous. Compare Madame Thérèse with Picciola or Columba with Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe. This

last book would be an excellent one to supplement a course in French History, and is a magnificent work to illustrate Napoleonic times, but alas! for the poor teacher who tries to stimulate an interest in it.

In conclusion I had determined to move that a committee be appointed to consider the subject of text-books and to confer with the educational authorities, but as I understand that the Minister of Education has asked for a committee of three, and that the committee is already appointed, I shall close by merely expressing the earnest hope that something may soon be accomplished that will greatly benefit the study of Modern Languages in Ontario.

NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.

GALLS AND THEIR PRODUCERS.

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The abnormal vegetable growths commonly known as galls have been from ancient times of peculiar interest to the human mind.

This has been due partly to the fact that there are products derivable from galls which have a commercial value. These products enter into the composition of a number of medical preparations, used chiefly in the Orient, but they come also into the British pharmacy in the form of two astringent ointments. From very early times preparations from galls have been used as a means for staining the hair black, and they form the basis of the tattooing dyes used by the Somali women. These gall products are used also in the preparation of dyes of more general application. The Chinese gall of commerce gives on analysis 72% of Tannin. It is an aphid gall closely resembling one produced on the branches of the Common Witch Hazel.

With the advances of chemistry the interest in the commercial aspect of galls has waned since many products derivable from them can be manufactured at less expense by chemical means. These curious structures, however, are not dependent alone on their commercial value for the interest that has attached to them. The human mind is attracted to them as presenting features unknown and mysterious. In our own times the unsolved relations between the host plant and the gall producer rank in importance with the problems of heredity and the origin of life.

A number of ancient writers have mentioned galls Theophrastus, Pliny and others. Pliny in his Natural History states that they may be produced in a single night. He recommends their use in affections of the gums and uvula for ulcers of the mouth and some dozen other complaints. According to him they are quite as efficacious and of nearly as wide application as some of our modern

patent medicines. He is unsuspicious of the origin of galls, although he states that a sort of gnat is produced in excrescences on oak leaves.

Even up to comparatively modern times the active agent in their production was unknown. Bacon describes them as an exudation of plants joined with putrefaction.

The earliest work on galls in which any attempt at description is made was written in 1686 by Malpighi. It contains an account of a number of galls common to Italy and Sicily. All the 16th century writers distinguish between gall nuts and gall apples, confining the former term to the hard outgrowths on the leaves of beech strees.

The term gall is derived from the Latin *galla*, a word used by Pliny in his *Natural History*. It has been proposed recently to substitute the word *cecidium* for gall. This word is derived from the (Greek *Kekis*) meaning anything gushing or bubbling forth, and probably has reference to the sap exudation from the insect puncture.

Before passing on to a consideration of gall structure we wish to define what we understand a gall or *cecidium* to be. The common definition proposed is,—“galls are abnormal structures produced by external organisms.” In my opinion this includes too much. Such cases as the following would come within the scope of this definition. A larva burrow is filled with a callus formation. An injury by a woodpecker has produced an abnormal production of tissues. Such structures would not in any case be regarded as galls. Further there is always in a gall a reciprocal relation between the plants acting as hosts and the gall producers. The advantage being entirely on the side of the producer and the injury confined to the host plant. We consider a satisfactory definition should include a reference to this dual relation and propose the following: Galls are abnormal productions of plant tissue, induced by the stimulus of an external organism, the development of which they assist. The higher types of galls not only assist but are essential to the development of the producer.

Galls are divided into two classes according to the agent that produces the stimulus, viz.,—*Phytocecidia*, those owing their origin to parasitic plants and *Zoocecidia*, those produced by animal parasites. According to their structural peculiarities they may also be classified as *Kataplasmie* growths or *Prosoplasmie*. The *Kataplas-*

mie include all the forms in which the abnormal growth differs very little from the normal tissue of the host plant, they resemble in this respect the callus formation following mechanical injury. The cells are often abnormally large and produce by their union a homogeneous mass of tissue often entirely parenchymatous. In galls of this class the sphere of influence of the parasite is not restricted to a particular location in the tissues of the host plant nor to a certain stage in the development of the producer. The galls in consequence have not a regularly recurring form nor fixed size. They are also distinguished by the fact that they are never completely closed. This is a necessary feature since reproduction takes place within the gall and the young larvae must have a means of escape.

The Prosoplasmiæ galls are characterized by the fact that their tissues differ more or less widely from the normal tissues of the host plant. In this case the sphere of stimulation of the parasite is restricted and its influence is limited to a particular stage in its development. In consequence these galls present fixed form and size relations. They repeat themselves always in their specific characters and present in their outer forms something absolute and well defined. These galls are always completely closed since reproduction never takes place within them.

To the Kataplasmiæ class belong nearly all the Phytoecidia. There are only a few plants able to stimulate their hosts to the production of the more complicated Prosoplasmiæ structures. Among the Zooecidia the Acarina and Hemiptera produce Kataplasmiæ galls only, the Lepidoptera and Coleoptera produce Prosoplasmiæ forms. The Diptera and Hymenoptera include gall producers of both classes.

The bristling masses of twigs found on several different species of trees furnish an example of the Phytoecidia class of gall. These structures are by some known as "thunder bushes," a name that must be based on the idea that electrical energy has been expended in their production. There are also popularly known as "witches' brooms," a term that dates from the period when witches were supposed to be the leading exponents of aerial navigation and to make use of the trees as convenient storehouses for their vehicles. Thus their owners always had a ready means of conveyance when they wished to attend a caucus of witches in some "auld haunted kirk," or other fitting place of rendezvous.

These abnormal growths which were thus in a less scientific age ascribed to Satanic agency are in reality produced either by Fungi or by the mistletoe, *Arceuthobium*. The stimulus of the parasite seems to arouse the activity of adventitious buds, thus causing an increased production of twigs. Although trees of different species bear these galls probably the most familiar form is that found on the Fir. The parasite in this case is an *Aecidium Fungus*. The structures originate from the horizontal projecting branches of the trees and form a large mass of short and thick twigs. These are quite soft and pliable since the vascular tissue is only poorly developed in them. The leaves on the broom are annual while the normal leaves last from six to eight years. The masses of twigs die in a few years and remain dry and bristling, a prominent object against the green background of the normal foliage.

Since the greatly increased growth produced by the gall entails a much more abundant supply of nourishment at that point, the significance of the structure in its relation to the producer is clear. The parasite is certainly living under unusually favorable circumstances since it thus has a very abundant food supply at its disposal.

The simplest form of gall of the *Zoocecidia* class is that produced by the gall mites, *Acarina*. These galls are of the typical *Kataplasmie* type and have open mouths. By means of these the young mites escape as reproduction takes place within the gall. The mite *Eriophyes pyri* produces a gall of this class on the leaves of the pear. A pathological condition of the leaf is produced which is commonly known as the pear-leaf blister. The stimulation of the mite causes both surfaces of the leaf to become convex. The mesophyll of the leaf is increased in quantity while the distinction between the spongy and the palisade parenchyma is destroyed. As the season advances the gall shrinks in proportion as the nourishment is extracted from it by the parasites.

The order Hemiptera includes certain gall producers, viz., the Aphididae or Plant-lice. These are of peculiar interest on account of the mystery surrounding their movements. At a certain time in early Summer they leave the galls and nothing is known of their whereabouts, in the great majority of cases, until in Autumn or early Winter they return as mysteriously as they left. On their return they restock the host plant with eggs which produce the young of the next spring. A few species have been shadowed in

their wanderings and by patient observations extending over many years the complications of their intricate life cycles have been worked out.

The consideration of two typical forms will make clear the peculiarities of the family.

Hormaphis Hamamelidis, Fitch.

This form produces galls on the common Witch Hazel. These abnormal structures are obliquely conical in form with a slight construction at the base.

While the galls are situated on the dorsal surface of the leaves, the means of exit for the larvae are found on the ventral surface. These openings are circular in shape, surrounded by a stout rim which is covered with a pale pubescence. When the galls are young, however, the mouths are defended by rather stiff hairs which effectually bar the entrance of enemies.

The producers of the galls, the stem mothers, are hatched from eggs deposited on the branches and twigs the preceding Autumn. These eggs, which are placed usually near the scars left by the fallen leaves, hatch about one week before the unfolding of the leaves. The inclement weather of the early Spring causes the death of many of the larvae, but some survive and settle along the mid-ribs and veins of the tender leaves. A gall is produced wherever an aphid attaches itself to a leaf. The stem mothers are all apterous agamic females. They produce larvae to such an extent that very soon the galls appear to be uncomfortably crowded.

The second generation when adult is composed of winged forms, thus the distribution of the species is provided for. The larvae of this generation are only .3 mm. in length, but they develop very rapidly, reaching maturity in from 16 to 20 days. During this time they cast their skins four times and finally reach the adult winged stage. This generation is known as the Spring Migrant. After reaching maturity they abandon the old home on the Witch Hazel and start off to find a new food plant on which to locate colonies. They select the Black Birch as suitable for the purpose and deposit larvae on the underside of its leaves.

The 3rd generation consists entirely of apterous, agamic forms, resembling in these respects the stem mother. They pass through their four stages in fourteen days. The 4th and 5th generations

are identical with the 3rd. About the middle of August the 5th generation is mature and produces the larvae of the 6th generation. When adult this generation resembles closely the Spring Migrant and is known as the Fall Migrant. Like the return of a lost tribe these forms seek the ancient home of their ancestors on the Witch Hazel. There they produce the ultimate or sexual generation.

The larva of this 7th generation, presents a jewelled appearance owing to masses of transparent, iridescent, waxy rods which issue from short secretory tubercles. Except for the absence of the secretory tubercles the male resembles a larva. The female is much larger than the male, she contains from 5 to 10 eggs. These are deposited as stated at the base of leaf buds. From these winter eggs the stem mothers are produced and the cycle is complete.

Hamamelistes Spinusus, Shimer.

This form also produces galls on the Witch Hazel but in this case the dormant flower buds are infested instead of the leaves. The mature gall is covered with large spines, giving the appearance of a miniature seed capsule of *Datura stramonium*. The mouth of the gall is funnel shaped, terminating in a bulging rim; this permits the migrants to expand their wings when leaving the gall. The inner surface of the gall is smooth and coated with a thin layer of a white secretion. This prevents the honeydew, expelled by the insects, from adhering to the surface of the gall. This deposit of honeydew prevents the galls from drying up.

The winter eggs of this form are deposited from June to early in July and do not hatch until June of the following year. They are placed near or on the petioles of the flower buds and are so tightly glued to the twigs that they can scarcely be removed without breaking.

When hatched the young stem mother settles down near the base of a flower bud and in one of the grooves. The stimulus of the insect hastens the development of the bud but checks the growth of the petiole. In a few days the insect is completely enclosed and by the end of June the gall is mature. As one stem mother may produce from 250 to 300 larvae the galls are often very much crowded.

The larvae produced by the stem mother form, as in the previous case, the Spring Migrants. They emigrate to the Black Birch and there deposit the larvae of the 3rd generation.

These after feeding for a short time settle down for further development and hibernation.

In the spring two additional generations are produced, the second of which is the Return Migrant and carries the specie back to the Witch Hazel. These Return Migrants form the 5th generation. They are only about one-half the size of the Spring Migrant.

In June of the next year, after the hatching of the stem mother, the 5th generation produces the sexual generation. The female in this form is provided with ventro-lateral poriferous plates; these exude a dense mass of waxy threads. With this the female covers her eggs, and thus gives them a protective resemblance to the pubescent leaves and buds.

From these eggs the stem mothers are produced and the starting point is again reached.

In the order Lepidoptera there are a number of interesting gall producers. Either of the two common galls on *Solidago Canadensis* will furnish an example. The one produced by the moth *Eucosma Scudderiana* Clemens is situated high up on the main axis of the plant among the branches, often causing some of these to become aborted. It has the spindle shaped form that seems to characterize nearly all Lepidopterous galls. The average length is about 3 cm., and the width about 14 cm. The producer of this gall emerges about the middle of June and oviposits soon afterwards. It passes the winter in the larval stage.

The other common *Solidago* gall is that produced by the moth with the seven league name, *Gnorimoschema gallaesolidaginis*, Riley. It is situated much lower on the stem than that produced by the former species. It varies considerably in shape and becomes in some cases almost globular. In length it ranges from 2.5 cm. to 3.5 cm., and in width from 1 cm. to 1.5 cm. The producer in this case emerges about two months later than the former species. It passes the winter in the imago stage and oviposits the next spring.

A 3rd typical gall of the Lepidopterous class is found on the New Jersey Tea, *Ceanothus Americana*. In the majority of cases this gall is terminal but in some instances the stem is found to project a short distance beyond it. In length it varies from 10 to 15 mm., and in greatest width from 5 to 8 mm. The producer of this gall is *Stagmatophora ceanothiella*, Cosens. It is a small moth of the family Elachistidae. It emerges near the end of June.

Among the Diptera there are many gall producers, these are included chiefly in two genera *Cecidomyia* and *Trypeta*. The venation of the wings of the former genus clearly marks it out. There are relatively few veins and only one cross vein. There are no closed cells. Comparing with the typical venation of the Diptera, it is found that there are only two branches to vein three, while some forms of venation in the Diptera show five branches to this vein. Vein seven is normal with two branches, while the anal veins are entirely wanting.

There are a number of galls produced on willows by this genus. As a type of these may be taken the pine-cone willow gall produced by *C. strobiloides*. This gall is very common on several species of willow. The influence of the parasite arrests the growth of the stem but stimulates the plant to increased leaf production. The result is that many whorls of leaves are produced without intervening internodes. The mature gall consists of a terminal cone shaped mass of leaves, closely resembling an overgrown bud. The producer passes its larval life in the centre of the mass surrounded by a thin covering. The larva pupates early in the spring and emerges soon afterwards.

The gall produced by *C. brassicoides* closely resembles this one but in this case the leaves are decidedly curled and the mass is more open and irregular than in the former species.

The genus *Trypeta* includes a number of rather large flies with banded wings. A gall produced by this species is found on the stem of *Solidago Canadensis*. It is situated usually slightly above the centre of the stem but in some cases is found among the branches. It is almost spherical in form with a diameter of about 2.5 cm. It has a pithy structure throughout with the larva in the centre. The producer emerges early in June. This form is rare at Toronto but is the common *Solidago* gall in some parts of Ontario.

In the order Coleoptera most of the gall producers are found in the Buprestidae family. As typical of these may be mentioned the large rough galls on the limbs of willows and cottonwood. The producer in this case is *Saperda concolor*.

An interesting coleopterous gall is produced on *Pinus resinosa* by a snout beetle, *Podapion gallicolla*. The gall in this case consists of an enlargement of the smaller branches of the pine. The producers emerge about the middle of June.

In the Hymenoptera there are two families in which are found gall producers, viz., Tenthredinidae, containing the Saw Flies and the Cynipidae, in which are included the True Gall Flies.

Most of the species of Saw Flies are external feeders on the foliage of plants but two genera *Euura* and *Potania* are gall producers. Some of the gall species pupate in the galls but many abandon them to undergo a transformation in the earth, in rotten wood or deserted galls. A willow gall produced by *Potania pomum* will serve as a type of the class. It is a leaf gall, occurring commonly on *Salix cordata* and rarely on *Salix discolor*. It is a fleshy, globular, monothalamous gall, resembling a miniature apple. It often has its yellowish ground color covered on one side of the gall by a rosy tint which increases the likeness to a small fruit of the pome class.

The Cynipidae produce galls that are often of an extremely complex character. The well known "spongy oak apple," produced by *Amphibolips coccinea* o.s. will serve as a type of the class.

The outside of the gall is covered with a firm epidermis serving for protection against mechanical injury. Inside of this layer is a spongy mass of considerable thickness; this serves chiefly to prevent the drying up of the gall but serves also for protection. Inside of this spongy mass is the true gall surrounded by an extremely hard layer of schlerenchymatous tissue. This is the producer's last line of defence as inside of it lies the larva surrounded by tender thin walled parenchyma cells which supply it with nourishment. The schlerenchymatous tissue serves also to prevent the crushing in of the larva chamber by the rapid growth of the gall tissue.

This gall is found attached to the leaves of black oats. The producers emerge about the end of October.

The gall flies are characterized by the peculiar segmentation of the abdomen. The 1st segment is stalk like, serving as a means of connecting with the thorax, while the 2nd or 2nd and 3rd segments are greatly developed. The remaining segments are arranged so that one overlaps the next with the posterior edges free. The slender ovipositor arises near the base of the abdomen, within the segments of which it is concealed. The wings have comparatively few veins and the stigma is lacking in the 1st pair.

Besides the owner of the gall a number of other insects take advantage of it for food and protection. These are the Inquilines

that do not interfere in any way with the producers. There are, however, a large number of insects occupying the galls that are true parasites. Since both the Producers and the Inquilines may have parasites preying on them and these again other parasites, a single gall will often furnish a large number of insects comprising several different species.

Very little is definitely known concerning the mysterious relations between the producer of the gall and the host plant. Attempts to induce artificial galls by injecting Formic and other vegetable acids have proved futile. Formerly it was supposed that the gall owed its origin to the mechanical irritation caused by the ovipositor of the producer. Such a view of the case is not tenable, however, since only a few cells are thus injured and these perish. Later investigations show that in the great majority of cases there is no marked abnormal growth until after the larva is hatched. This narrows the problem to the influence of the larva on the tissues of the host plant. Since the production of a particular tissue is governed by the constitution of its protoplasm, the influence of the larva must be exerted on the protoplasm of the cells. This must be stimulated to increased activity and its activities must be turned into perfectly well defined channels, since tissues of definite form and constitution are to result. In whatever way this stimulation is produced it can influence only a few cells directly, but many cells must be affected indirectly, since increased growth and division takes place throughout a comparatively wide area. This feature is not on unique one in the life processes of plants. In the process of fertilization we see how far reaching an effect may be although only a few cells are directly influenced. Only the cells in the ovule are concerned directly in the act of fertilization but the effect extends to all the floral organs.

Since totally different galls are produced on the same plant by different gall insects, the stimulating substance must have specific characters for each gall producer. On *Rosa blanda* two galls differing very materially are produced by two species of the genus *Rhodites*. The one gall is perfectly smooth, the other is covered profusely with prickles, yet these galls mature at about the same time and originate on practically the same part of the stem of the host. The relation of the plant to the parasite is the same in either case, consequently the influence of the producer must be specific in order that different galls result.

With regard to the cause of the stimulation various theories have been proposed. Kustenmacher claims that liquids excreted by the larva are absorbed by the plant tissues as nutriment. In support of this theory he says that many larvae are strongly scented. If this view is correct it gives the relation between the producer and the host plant a true symbiotic aspect. Other investigators suppose that the larvae secrete an acrid saliva to liquefy the food and that this stimulates the tissues of the host when the larva is feeding.

In my opinion it is doubtful whether the larvae in the Cynipidae obtain nourishment by the mouth. The problem at least is sufficiently in doubt to merit investigation. The larva is often so tightly packed in the inner gall that feeding in the usual way would seem to be entirely out of the question. It is in such intimate contact with the cells of the host that it seems to form almost a part of the plant tissue. Is it not possible under such conditions that the body wall of the larva may act as a cell membrane and nourishment pass through it by a process of osmosis?

With regard to the composition of the substance producing the stimulus most authors concur in placing it among the nitrogenous substances known as enzymes.

CLASSICAL SECTION.

THE ETHICAL VALUE OF THE STUDY OF THE CLASSICS.

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Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen: The layman must always approach the inner precincts of a profession with something of apology. But when I have thus been mindful of the modesty due, there are one or two considerations that seem to justify my speaking to you on such a subject as I have chosen. And first, professional boundaries are not hard and fast. The several provinces seem to overlap, and in this great domain of teaching in general we all have common interest. And besides this, we possibly never are in a position to do our best work without having in mind the point of view of those who form our audience. The preacher needs the voice from the pew and the teacher that from the benches. What value we are to attach to any opinion or judgment expressed, is a matter to be determined; but that we should listen does not, I think, admit of dispute.

But, Mr. President, I may lay claim, perhaps, to an interest in the intellectual discipline you represent on stronger grounds than these general considerations would suggest. The classics were not my special subject in the university. Had I life to live over again this might be one of the many points where I might undertake improvement. As it was, however, external causes rather than any disposition of mine directed my choice into other lines of study, and for a time I concluded, though not without regret, that this fascinating field of study was closed to me. To the serious student of the New Testament, however, Greek literature can not wholly be dismissed from the attention. And then it so turned out that not long after my graduation I found myself instructor in Latin in an institution in another land that held a middle place between our secondary schools and Arts college. The situation might call to mind another described in an anecdote a friend of mine used to tell. A narrator of the marvellous

is relating how under some special stress of circumstances a fox climbed a tree when one of his listeners interrupted with "Why, you silly fellow a fox cannot climb a tree." "Ah!" replied the other, "that's just the point; this one had to." At all events, I did my best and whatever value the circumstance may have been to my students, it was certainly of greater service to myself, for it reintroduced me to the Greek and Latin classics, and now at a time in my life, and under circumstances in which their significance was more readily apparent, and I have never wholly relinquished my interest since.

In these mercantile days, as perhaps never before, we are tempted whenever education is mentioned to have before our minds instruction and training as a marketable commodity. This is incident to democracy, at least in its early stages. And yet the ultimate end of education is not utility in this external sense. Surely, in the very nature of the case it must be ethical. The world in forming its educational curricula cannot leave Plato out of mind, with his two-fold division of the subject to be educated—the body and the spirit—and his two-fold instrument—gymnastics and music. And, if education be self-realization of the spirit, and if the act of duty is the very flower of that self-realization, then, by the ethical standard must the validity of any discipline as an educational instrument be tested. And judged by this standard, I think I may without rashness dare to predict that the Greek and Roman literatures will have a permanent place upon the courses of study of the schools of civilization. We may, to be sure, look for periods of advance and periods of recession. All progress is marked by such. But the trend must be in the direction of ever greater prominence given to the classics and the goal their universal use. Exception may not be permitted even on the ground that they are not suitable to all. Language is native to the human race as such and failure in its acquisition at least as a mechanical process must be due to a faulty mode of instruction; while if the ethical is the goal of every life the best instrument of its realization is the inalienable right of all.

As we approach the Classics in the most superficial way, we find hints of their ethical value. The reason may not be readily apparent, but the fact itself is apparent to the most casual observer. The teacher of morals to-day finds himself turning back at almost every step to find in the early

Greek literature—and that section of our classics I shall have more especially in mind in what I shall say to-day—to find, I say, suitable illustrations with which to concretely present the ethical instruction he seeks to inculcate. I think it would not be difficult to show that the meaning of this is that the same spiritual problems were seeking expression in those early days as to-day, and that they found expression, too; many of them, so suitably that the the vehicle with which the creative genius of the time supplied them has not during the millenniums since been superseded.

This facility of the Classics to illustrate the ethical could readily be shown by examples, though this would seem unnecessary. Any reader of these literatures could mention a dozen examples almost without hesitation. But as a single instance, take the positive element in morals in contrast with the negative—really the contrast St. Paul speaks of so often under the terms *spirit* and *letter*. Even the beginner in Homer will have been impressed with the paragraph in the *Odyssey* in which Ulysses in the midst of his account of the misfortunes that befel himself and his companions through boisterous seas and unfriendly coasts while they were seeking after the fall of Troy to regain their native shores, described the approach of their ship to the fatal shore of the Sirens. The heroes were aware of their danger and guarded themselves against it. They filled their ears with wax and bound themselves with chains and withes to the masts and spars of the ship. And, though the siren songs so dissipated the power of the will that when the spell was upon the navigators they must have been lured to their destruction if it had not been for the heroic measures they had taken by way of precaution. Still, as it was, they passed the fatal shore with their lives, even if not unscathed—for the withes had entered the flesh. But in this remarkable history of the human spirit, we have another incident that occurred upon the same dangerous coast, Jason and his companions, the flower of Greece, are on their way to unknown seas impelled by a high ambition. They, too, are aware of the coast of the Sirens and its dangers. But the precautions they take are different. Not with withes and wax, but with a higher music—for they have brought Orpheus with them as a companion—they preempt the soul, and the songs that appeal to the lesser passions are unheard, and thus stripped of their power and danger.

This one instance will serve to illustrate what I think we shall risk no contradiction when we assert, the prolific nature of the Classics as a source for illustrations of the highest pertinency in the realm of morals. But it will suggest something in addition to that. It will suggest that there must be a reason for this peculiar power—a reason in the very nature of the literature with which we are dealing. Ethics in the last analysis is but a statement of the conduct and principles of conduct that are normal to the human spirit. And where would this be found better than in a literature which is in reality the history of the human spirit and its ideals—and that, too, as presented by the people who had rare opportunities to be leaders of the race, and not least among these a literary genius that enabled them to portray these struggles and problems of the spirit in pictures whose vividness and vitality must keep them conspicuous in the galleries of all time.

But I must turn from these more general considerations and look if we may in something of detail at the contribution which the study of the Classics as a discipline may be expected to make to the moral life of the community. And we cannot do better in the pursuit of this purpose than to trace the influence of this special discipline upon the development of one of the more fundamental virtues, and I shall not have to offer any apology if I place *integrity* in this category. I remember to have heard a prominent member of this very section of the Educational Association of Ontario state, not long since, that our national vice was not drunkenness, but lying, and in the very nature of the case, if we give the term its wider scope, this must ever be the case, for unreality is the foundation stone of the whole temple of sin. And it is in the education of the spirit in this practical aspect that I shall dare to assign to the Classics a foremost place.

We shall first look at integrity in its initial stage of accuracy. I remember how much impressed I was as a student in the University with the claims of the natural sciences to a superior place as a discipline in accuracy. Nature at least seemed to tolerate no lie. To the weight of a hair her declared proportions would enter into combination, and no other. Nor were you permitted to stand in the distance in silent reverence of this virtue of which she claimed to be prophetess. You must practice it at your peril. When you entered your chemical laboratory—and if you refused to enter it made no difference; the same inscrutable

law was in progress outside as well as in, even if it were less visible—but when you entered your laboratory you were obliged to practice the strictest accuracy under the severest penalties. Nature's sanctions were as inflexible as they were easily understood. Mistakes even were not tolerated. You have to have your wits about you. If you dared to enter that temple of science without your head figuratively, you were very likely to come out without it literally.

But surely the Classics supply a still better discipline in accuracy than even this. When one remembers the elusive elements that enter into the complex task of translating—the discovery through scores of hints of the spiritual content of the literature you are seeking to interpret, *i.e.*, of the inner life and experience of a people differing at every point from ourselves, in point of view, in history and in outlook, and the expression of this content in forms that will set forth a spiritual attitude on our part that will most nearly correspond to theirs—I say when one stands before such a task as this he is first profoundly impressed with the impossibility of it and then as profoundly impressed with the consciousness that the fact that he has defined his task is half way towards its solution, but that in order to its completion he must have his whole spirit sensitive to every appeal of fact, however faint, and that this very demand calls for and promotes a spirit of accuracy and truth in a degree as far in excess of the discipline of the sciences as the task that calls it forth is more difficult and elusive.

Of course the Classics have sometimes been taught in a manner unworthy of them, and then their real problem has not been made apparent. And this is probably one of the reasons—but only one—why, at times, during the past generation, there has been a tendency to a greater or less degree to supersede them by other subjects of study. There is evidence, however, on every hand that that state of affairs is passing, both as regards the cause I mentioned and the effect. The *key* is less in vogue than once it was. Nor even under the unfortunate pressure of our examination system is the lexicon and grammar so exclusively employed as the mechanical medium between language and language. I should like to see them still further removed. I recall a characteristic incident when a Japanese student had translated for me a sermon into the Japanese language. He had missed the point of

an expression and advised me to eliminate the whole paragraph effected by this error, as it didn't make good sense. The mistake was his, but the attitude was not without significance. It is after all a sign of strength to assert the authority of the self. I would like more frequently to hear the students complain that the grammar was wrong or the dictionary incomplete. Surely with even a very limited vocabulary, but with the spiritual attitude suggested by a dozen indications and with the human spirit the intermediary between language and language, the process of translating will become as vital and stimulating as it is difficult, and nothing will be a better introduction to real life and its duties, where the problems are always complex and elusive than the Classical class-room when thus properly conducted.

But I have as yet touched upon only the most external aspect of my subject. To properly develop this fundamental virtue that we are using as our moral measuring-rod, we must seek a still more fundamental purpose. It is really a discipline in discovering reality and practising reality. As a race the English speaking peoples are assaulted at a thousand points. We are peculiarly exposed to this race sin of unreality, or lying if I may use the more pungent word. Either on the one hand we are using words with a wrong significance—and this is a practice which in its influence upon the spirit of truth is exceedingly disintegrating—or we are using them with meagre significance—and this because more insidious is a still more prolific source of mischief than the other. Our difficulty is that without the Classics we are removed from the rich fundamental significances of the vocabulary we employ, and so even though we employ a word accurately enough so far as some legitimate use of it is concerned, we are still frequently using it without spiritual fullness, *i.e.*, without all those rich overtones it has received from its history. A word in the nature of the case is but a sound or sign to indicate a thing or an act, and to honestly fulfil its function it must have behind it in the thought that concrete element which it is supposed to indicate. But our concrete world for the most part reaches our verbal signs through the intermediation of the mother tongues of our language. And thus without their aid we are floating in mid-heavens, in a world of unreality. And language is earthy enough to need like Antæus to touch the earth in order to retain its vigor. A previous gen-

eration saw this and gave the children a drill in the Latin and Greek roots, which perhaps is better than nothing. But in the world of words as in the world of plants there is not much succulence in roots. We need the full-grown plant and the flowers and the fruit clusters bearing down the branches. An illustration might be taken at random. *Tragedy* will do. It undoubtedly has some definite significance as it appears in the newspaper columns. And certainly its *goat song* original will stimulate healthful inquiry, and may lead to the pursuit of a history in which will lie unfolded a content that is concrete. But to travel the very lanes and roads where the word grew—to be present when the *ραψωγί* was chanted by the worshippers encircling the altar, as the musical accompaniment, while the goat, the enemy of the vine, was being sacrificed to Dionysus, the patron god of the vineyard—then the bare facts of history that the word first meant the song accompanying this sacrifice and then became widened to include all serious poetry and then restricted again to the *most* serious in which is portrayed the key to all real life, viz., that the larger life is always secured through the loss of the lesser—these bare facts, I say, receive the glow of life through the concrete facts that gather around the word's birth and earlier story. In fact, if telling the truth involves not only the use of words without departing from their proper significance, that is in its irreducible minimum, but the importing into the word all the significance it can properly convey—if that is truth, and I cannot see how it can be less—then the conclusion must follow that an honest and effective study of the classics is not only an aid, but is absolutely indispensable to truthfulness in word, and hence to integrity of character.

But that is not all. There are degrees of reality. The experiences of the spirit are a great jumble in which are commingled elements that are universal and permanent with those that are accidental and ephemeral, and to the higher integrity the power to distinguish between these is indispensable. The half of life and more is often spent in a mad pursuit of the transient, before experience teaches us—and teaches us oftentimes with stripes—the vanity of it. And never was there greater need for an Orpheus on board than to-day, for never were the songs of the Sirens louder or more alluring. While we pursue the material as if it were the permanent, we have hints to the contrary. If the President of

this University were not in the room I would at greater length outline an illustration. But of this at least I may remind you. Ontario is as yet our wealthiest province and no doubt envied by her smaller sisters by the sea for her prosperity, while Nova Scotia is small among the political divisions of the Dominion. And yet during the past quarter of a century two of the four great political leaders of the nation, and three of the University Presidents of Ontario who have during that time directed or are now directing the higher education of this province, were given us by the smaller province. It would appear that Ontario can supply minerals and manufactures and meal and meat, while Nova Scotia supplies the men.

An illustration may show us our need, but it will not supply it. We need the spirit that can discern the enduring and the real. And where shall we seek it but in the enduring. We have frequent occasion these days to point out that the Biblical literature has not been saved from destruction by some external providence, but by the fact of its own indestructibility. And the same principle applies to all literature. That has remained which because of its inherent vitality the destructive forces of time cannot destroy. Then if we are seeking that spiritual alchemy which shall transmute our duller faculties into a keener discernment that shall recognize the real, are we likely best to find it in those literatures where the sifting process of time have not yet separated the transient from the enduring or in the literature whose colossal forms of reality stand out like the giant oaks unobscured by the evanescent growths whose lesser vitality has long since succumbed to the gnawing tooth of time.

And now, Mr. President, in what I have just said I have suggested the last great service that I shall be able to refer to, that the study of the Classics renders in the realm of Ethics. Integrity, that fundamental virtue, the need of which we have been observing and whose development we have been tracing as an index to real education, calls for economy in the use of our resources. The negative side of economy is often enough and sometimes clearly enough recognized, but the positive side is often overlooked. When both aspects are duly embraced in our definition, economy is practically one with integrity. We must not only save our resources from being improperly or wastefully employed, but we must see that they are not unemployed. That is to say a real

integrity demands of us that we discover those hidden possibilities of ours as yet unexplored. In other words it demands that our highest, truest, most clearly defined, ideal be placed before the spirit's vision; and here again, the Greek literature, especially, is indispensable. In translations we can avail ourselves of its service in a degree, but the genius of no people can be adequately grasped through translations. I think it needs no demonstration to establish that the process of acquiring a people's language, the vehicle of their spirit, is the only discipline available to us that serves us as a gateway to their spirit. But the value of the Greek literature, as an aid to us in Canada to-day in the formation of our ideals, may be indicated by calling attention to two points at least at which these ideals of ours are in great danger of being defective and hence need to be guarded. One of these defects with which we are threatened is the outcome of our times and other people share it with us. The other is incident to our national heritage and hence possibly in a marked degree peculiar to ourselves.

The scientific tendency of our times, as Carlyle long ago pointed out, is destructive of hero-worship. The discovery, or the supposed discovery, that even great men are the outcome of certain forces which they themselves in no sense control, places the hero on very much the same shelf as sugar or sulphuric acid or any other chemical compound. And while this may be largely in the direction of the truth it is not the whole truth. The great personality never has been and never will be produced except upon the spiritual pabulum of ideals and these ideals finding their completion in the personal. And what is this but hero-worship?

The schools of Athens had in the seventh century before our era a very limited curriculum. I am afraid they sinned fearfully against the notions of those who to-day are crying out that the endless diversity of characteristic found in our school rooms calls for corresponding variety in the course of study. Mr. President, it calls for reality. And the Athenians, if confirmation is to be found in the issue, certainly seemed to provide their youth with this. Their curriculum did not embody variety, but it did embody reality. Homer was the alpha and the omega of it. In the schoolrooms the youth recited Homer; at their pastimes they recited Homer; walking the streets they recited Homer—until the heroes of Homer seemed in their fancy to stand in

every doorway and upon every street corner and to throng the agora and all the squares and parks of the city. And in the next century Athens gave to the world a pattern for a city which for loveliness has not been superseded, and deeds which, conveyed to us under such names as Marathon and Thermopylæ and Salamis, still arouse the world in its moments of sluggishness and makes the blood tingle in our veins. And better still, she gave to mankind a list of names which includes Miltiades in generalship, and Themistocles and Pericles in statecraft, and Phidias in sculpture, and Lycias in oratory, and Herodotus and Thucydides in history, and Socrates and Plato in philosophy, and Aeschylus and Sophocles and Euripides in poetry—names that form a constellation whose brightness has through the centuries cheered the gloom that must, at least intermittently, accompany all human achievement and whose magnificence must remain undimmed forever.

With these disintegrating influences of to-day—influences which arise from sources good in themselves, but which are none the less destructive of the highest in us unless they are directed by other forces spiritual and constructive in their character—with these confronting us, are we not ready to welcome that great spiritual force, the Greek literature, that has been tried and has proven its power? The only greater force we could name in the realm of literature is the Hebrew. And it is not a competitor. Rather are they complementary; and in a task so vital in its issue we need them both.

If the danger we have just looked at, *i.e.*, of eliminating from our ideal the element of personality is serious, the next we shall mention is no less serious. That is the elimination from that personality of qualities essential to its highest perfection. And especially here would I name individuality or independence. The language by which heaven has whispered into the hearts of men longings for independence is the mountains and the sea. The nursery of individualism has ever been in sight of these. The reasons are not far to seek. Not only have these great natural objects supplied the physically weaker with a ready rampart against tyranny, but have provided that isolation and uniqueness of circumstance which is equally essential to the growth of individuality. Nor is that all. The mountains and the unbounded expanse of the sea have carried man's dreams upward and outward

until they were lost in the vast, mysterious unseen, and promoted his communion with God and His universe.

On the other hand, the broad fertile plain has ever been the harvest field of materialism and tyranny. And Canada is a vast plain. The almost boundless stretches of her prairies and forests are scarcely broken by the mountain range, while but a meagre fraction of her promised millions of people will look out upon the sea. What then is to be her destiny? Will she be a nation of servile, plodding, wheat producers, or will she fling to the breeze her banner inscribed:—

“Man is the nobler growth our realms supply
And souls are ripened in our northern sky.”

Had we lived centuries since I am afraid the former would have been probable. To-day the latter is at least possible. Never in the world's history has the mine, “All things are yours,” been more exploited than to-day. In the world of spirit as in the world of material things the present contains all the past in its ample folds. But in the world of spirit that infolded past is drawn out into the conscious being of the individual by the use of that literature which is the record of its appearance upon the stage of the race's history. It remains for Canada to take advantage of her material opportunities and to enter into possession of material wealth on a scale more colossal than history has hitherto witnessed, but to make this wealth the instrument, not the master, of the spirit. And engaged in a task so momentous she cannot afford to leave unemployed her great spiritual heritage from the past.

In the classroom, ladies and gentlemen, there are many influences no doubt that conspire to make your task seem routine and unvital. But if I have, by this very imperfect presentation of my subject, said anything that would assist in withstanding these influences, if through what I have said the dignity—nay, the supreme importance to the nation and the race—of the discipline you represent has been made to any degree more apparent, then there will be two reasons that will cause me to remember this occasion with pleasure, 1st, the compliment you paid me in asking me to address you, and 2nd, the fact that I have thus been permitted to cheer on, in their arduous, noble, efforts, that regiment, which perhaps, above all others, occupies a strategic point in the educational battlefield of our times.

MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

SOME MISTAKES IN THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS.

JOHN ELLIOTT, B.A., BOWMANVILLE.

It is with some hesitation that I discuss such a subject before this Mathematical Section, and I trust I shall not be regarded as assuming to be an authority on methods of teaching. My remarks will be of a more general character than the heading would indicate.

Lest the title of the paper should suggest a reflection upon the teachers of Mathematics in our schools, let me say at the outset that I have been informed by those who are in a position to judge that in no department of High School work is the teaching of a higher order than in the department of Mathematics. This I believe to be true and yet none of us have got to that point where we have no more to learn. It can do no harm if for once the excellencies of our work are passed over and attention is called to some of our besetting mistakes. If but few of this company err in the ways I shall indicate, it will be pleasant to congratulate yourselves on the heights to which you have attained and to pass the hints down to those who need them more.

Whatever be said of the efficiency of our work as compared with that in other departments the results obtained and the general condition of Mathematical studies are not altogether satisfactory. The answers of candidates at the various examinations, the opinions of the Public School Inspectors under whom our graduates teach and of the University men to whom we send students, and our own experience tend to produce a feeling that in the High Schools things are not Mathematically as they should be. If this be the case the question arises, "Why is it so?" Some reasons may be suggested:—

In the first place the value of Mathematics as an instrument of culture is, I believe, underrated. It may be, too, that the spirit of the times is averse to the hard thinking which proficiency in Mathematics calls for. The ways of Mathematical knowledge do not attract for the present educational tendency is to work along the lines of least resistance.

The crowding of the curriculum and the claims of other subjects, new and old, have lessened the time given to Mathematics. In addition to this the low standards set at the examinations especially that for Matriculation with its minimum which has not always been irreducible, have lessened the incentive to thorough work. We have been hampered, too, by the character of our text books, which, however excellent as treatises on elementary Mathematics, have not been altogether satisfactory for teaching puposes.

Mathematical work on the whole has suffered for want of a High School Inspector who would be not only a cultured and skilful teacher, but a Mathematical specialist as well. Such a man, enthusiastic and progressive, studying conditions and going from school to school with suggestion and kindly criticism, would do much to raise the work of the Mathematical department to a higher plane.

Making all allowances, however, there seems to be a measure of responsibility for present conditions to be charged up to the teaching of the subject.

While I hesitate to reflect upon the work of the Public Schools, I must give it as my opinion that many of our students are spoiled as Mathematicians before they enter the High School classes. Too often the work imposed in the Primary School is beyond the capacity of the pupils. Time that should be spent in helping them by the exercise of their own mental activities to master and apply the easier principles of Mathematics is taken up with problems and exercises that do not appeal to them at all, selected, it may be, from old examination papers, or so-called lesson helps. With undeveloped or misdeveloped powers such students enter the High Schools. They get through our hands after a fashion and go out in succession to prepare others to take their places. Is there anything we can do to make our part in this circle of work more effective?

In order to have something other than my own views on the matter I asked a number of representative men connected with the Universities, Normal Schools and High Schools and also several Public School Inspectors this question: "What in your observation and experience have seemed to be the chief defects in the Mathematical training of students in our schools?" The replies were all written in a spirit of frank, yet kindly, criticism, and I am much indebted to the writers. I quote from them without indicating from what source any opinion comes.

An Inspector states that: "Teachers in the Public Schools fail in the understanding and application of principles and are lacking in the ability to develop the subject. They are too much the slaves of rules and formulae."

"The deficiencies in English and the culture arising from the study of English are so glaring," says one, "that I hesitate to speak of defects in Mathematics. It seems to me, however, that we are attempting to cover too much ground in the year. We are giving too large a proportion of time to Mathematics and we are wasting time in teaching some things that are of little value educationally and will not be used by one in fifty in after life."

The lack of accuracy in both oral and written work was referred to as a serious fault.

"There should be more attention given to the *meaning* of the work in Arithmetic and Algebra, not necessarily to the preparation of formal theorems, but rather to the theory that is present in every problem."

"In Algebra a large part of the equipment of some students is mere formalism, the significance of the letter symbols being rarely appreciated. Even in such simple formulae as $(a-b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2$, they do not fully grasp the generality of a and b . Nor do they realize in a simple quadratic like $x^2 - 5x + 6 = 0$, the variability of x as opposed to the constancy of 5 and 6. Other examples might be quoted."

Again, "Students are too rigid and mechanical, lacking in that elasticity and facility of adaptation which characterizes the accomplished Mathematician. This is due in part to youth and immaturity, but a proper course of instruction should do much to broaden a student's mind."

"In the subject of Geometry students have an altogether inadequate conception of what a Geometrical figure really is. To

them it is something fixed and invariable about which they reason, instead of being regarded as a mere arbitrary picture to aid them in their reasoning. Every student should be fully shown that a Geometrical figure has its accidentals and its essentials and that the essentials upon which he reasons remain unchanged however much the accidentals are varied. A similar observation may be made with reference to Algebra and Trigonometry."

The weakness mentioned by another is the tendency and practise far too common in all our schools to substitute *talking* Mathematics for *teaching*, explaining, illustrating and lecturing, rather than leading the student to learn by doing and to acquire knowledge and power by the exercise of his own activities.

It seems to me that some teachers err through having too narrow a conception of the work of the Mathematical master. His function is not the mere directing of his students in getting up a course of study or gathering material to answer possible questions. He should contribute more than any other member of the staff to the training of students in logical thinking, to the developing of judgment and the power of eliminating irrelevant matter and placing facts in their right relations, in short, he aims at clear thinking and sound reasoning with the facts and principles of Mathematics as the subject matter.

As clear thinking and exact expression go together we must avoid the too common mistake of neglecting to train the student in oral expression of his thought. Many a student can solve Mathematical puzzles and juggle with symbols and formulæ who cannot state logically the reasoning upon which his work is based. Not merely in formal proofs and theorems, but in all Mathematical work which admits of it should we require oral statement, the aim always being clearness of thought and exact clear cut expression according to the student's own thought, both as a test of his mental grasp and as an aid to it.

The teacher's duty is to guide in the acquisition of the vocabulary and turns of expression needed to express the new idea, but beyond that the student should do the greater part of the talking and the weaker he is Mathematically the more will the effect to formulæ his thought in words aid him in his thinking. A few problems fully discussed and argued out in clear, concise phraseology will be more helpful than a whole chapter given as home work and tested by the answers in the book.

We should attach more importance to accuracy, not as some do, because of its value in business life and in the practical applications of Mathematics, but because of its fundamental place in intellectual training. Mechanical accuracy may sometimes be of secondary importance but it is always important. A mature Mathematician grappling with an intricate problem may think lightly of a mere mechanical slip, but for the student of elementary Mathematics forming habits of mind that will go with him through his whole career absolute accuracy should be the rule. Students should be encouraged to aim at this and taught to apply checks and tests of accuracy wherever possible. Exercises should not be given of such length and difficulty as to tax the endurance of students. They should be kept working just below the limit of their ability.

This leads me to mention the most serious error in the teaching of Mathematics. For want of a better term I call it "*forcing the pace.*" We make haste to generalize and assume that if the student has grasped the rule or the formula which will solve the problems he is working intelligently. Students will find the H.C.F. of 969 and 722, or solve a whole series of quadratic equations or even go through a set of problems in permutations and combinations by imitation or analogy and fail completely in a statement of the reasoning involved in their own symbolic statements. We sometimes err in presenting too many and too difficult problems. As a rule little more than a hint should be given in case of difficulty. Instead of helping, lead the student by preparatory work to acquire the power of overcoming the difficulty himself.

While class teaching is necessary and in some cases preferable, I believe more individual teaching should be done, so as to encourage independence and to avoid too much conformity to type among the students. The word of encouragement and help given to the individual at a critical moment may mean more than many explanations given in a general way from the teacher's platform. I suggest more time spent among the class by the teacher and the free use of students to present solutions and give explanations orally or on the board to their classmates.

In conclusion, I would adopt the language of one of my correspondents, who states that it is a serious waste of time and loss of power to teach elementary Mathematics by a combination of

the lecture and examination plan. The general adoption of what may be called the "workshop" method, in which the Mathematical lesson is a working lesson, would lift the teaching of the subject to a higher plane, popularize Mathematics and give fewer failures at examinations and better results in every way. It would make the work in the department more pleasant for both student and teacher; the student would realize the pleasure that comes from a sense of growing power and the teacher would have the satisfaction of attaining better results with less expenditure of energy. To accomplish this it is essential that the mind of the student be kept actively engaged in systematic and accurate applications of Mathematical principles to easy problems and exercises suited to his capacity, done largely under the direct supervision of the teacher who should keep the student mentally on the move without "forcing the pace."

If home work be given, unless in the case of the best senior students it should be of such a character and amount that it can be examined and checked by the teacher, otherwise it is of little value.

SOME TENDENCIES IN MATHEMATICAL TEACHING.

C. L. CRASSWELLER, SARNIA.

The subject that I have chosen for my address is a well worn one, but one, I think, that should have an interest for us all at the present time. Just as a merchant, from time to time, takes stock of his goods, estimates his profits and his losses, his progress or lack of progress as compared with his competitors, and considers the changing conditions of trade, and what measures it would be wise to take to make his business more profitable and more stable, so it is necessary for the teachers of any department to consider from time to time the value of the results they are striving to attain, the adaptability of the methods they are using, the standing of their department in public estimation, the attitude of the higher Educational authorities towards it, and the means to be adopted to increase its usefulness.

The department in which we are interested has many advantages. It has been recognized from time immemorial as one of the chief vehicles of human thought and as one of the best means of training youthful intelligence. It has appealed especially to Ontario boys and girls so that proficiency in it has carried, perhaps, greater credit than proficiency in any other course. The rural teacher, particularly, has been more readily discredited by inability to work some proposed question in Arithmetic than for any other scholastic defect. We have thus been able to secure fair recognition for our own work in spite of some lack of enthusiasm for Mathematical studies at head quarters.

There are, however, changes taking place in our schools, and in the condition of our work—changes, too, in the aims of the pupils who fill our classes, which must, to some extent, modify our methods, and which therefore it will be worth our while to notice.

First, as to the preparation received by our pupils before entering the High School. The foundations of our work must always be in the Arithmetic taught in the Public Schools. It is there that the young pupil gets his first ideas of Mathematical symbols, of Mathematical operations and of Mathematical reasoning, and we all of us know how persistent these ideas are, and we are realizing more and more clearly every day how closely we must relate our early work in Algebra to the previous work in Arithmetic if it is to be intelligently done.

As a rule,—partly from the natural aptitude of our boys and girls—partly from the atmosphere of the home and neighborhood which have considered Arithmetic perhaps the most important subject of the Public School course—partly, I hope, from the excellence of the training received by our Public School teachers in their High School course—as a rule the teaching of Arithmetic in our Public Schools has been good. We are influenced, however, very largely by our neighborhood to a country in which, in spite of many brilliant examples of excellence, Mathematical studies are not held in very high esteem, and signs are not wanting that our Educational authorities are inclined to follow the methods of the American High Schools more closely than we have been accustomed to consider wise. When the pupils coming in to our classes have been taught Arithmetic by teachers whose own High School course in that subject has been completed in the Lower School

when, too, these teachers have received their standing in it by a school certificate instead of as the result of independent examination, and have had this work supplemented by a short year's work in content and method by Normal School teachers who have themselves, perhaps, had no special training in Mathematics, and whose energies will be taxed by the large amount of purely professional work, we can hardly expect to get them even as well prepared for our department as we get them now.

Moreover, we must expect that as time goes on, our High Schools will be more and more exclusively town schools, attended by town pupils. The development of Continuation Classes is not likely to stop at its present stage but will probably reach the result intended by its promoters, and bring classes of this kind within reach of nearly all the rural homes in the more thickly populated parts of the Province.

It is not a matter of accident that, as a rule, our best Mathematical pupils have come from country homes. The multiplied distractions of town and city life, its ceaseless gaieties, the constant movement on the streets, the plentiful supply of light and trifling reading, the church activities even—all these accord but ill with the quiet and patient thought needed for Mathematical studies. The farm boy may not think at all—his quiet and patience may be but as the quiet and patience of the ox, but if he has the capacity for thought at all, he has every opportunity for the steady and continuous brooding that brings knowledge and power, and though he may come to us but poorly prepared as compared with the pupil trained in a good graded school by teachers of greater scholarship, standing and experience, yet he is capable of independent, if not rapid work, quite unknown to the town pupil whose every study has been under the constant direction of the teacher.

In the third place we must expect in the near future not only a smaller number of rural pupils, we must also expect a smaller proportion of candidates looking for teachers' certificates. Not only shall we lose the large number absorbed by the continuation classes, but every change that tends towards greater permanency in the Public School teacher's work must diminish the number of new teachers required every year, while the increasing wealth of the country, and the greater opportunities of business life, and of other professions will considerably increase the number of those

who will take the pass Matriculation Examination, either as a standard of general education before commencing a business career or with a view to entering one of the many professions that now make that the entrance qualification.

This will tend to make our Middle school classes more homogeneous, and to some extent, if the University authorities live up to the new forty per cent. requirements will be a levelling up—but if the number of candidates for teachers' certificates is to become an insignificant proportion of the whole—it will be also to a large extent a levelling down, as these students have always furnished the more serious and ambitious part of our classes. There is yet another possible change for us to consider. It is not at all likely that the powers given to the heads of "Approved Schools" will remain as they are, or that the methods now initiated will be confined to Matriculation or the entrance to teachers' professional schools. We must expect to have "Approved" Public Schools sending us pupils passed as a result of the exercise of the teacher's judgment only and we must expect that the list of subjects on the High School course exempt from examination will be extended. Personally I have not been able to see any greater evils inherent in our system of examinations than are inherent in any system devised by imperfect human officials, and worked out by imperfect human instruments, and I am unable to believe that the teachers who, we are told, have misused our former methods, who have sought their own glory and success rather than the good of their pupils, and who have crammed them to meet examination questions instead of training and teaching them with thoroughness and conscience,—I am unable—I say—to believe that these men, when they have the grading of their pupils in their own hands, will use their power with the judgment and conscience which will be much more required than formerly, and the lack of which, we are told, has so discredited the present system.

I am not, however, so much concerned to express an opinion as to the wisdom or unwisdom of recent changes, as I am to consider what they really mean, and the best way of adapting ourselves to them.

Let us consider first the different classes of pupils for whom we have to make provision.

A few schools, of course, count as among their most important work, the preparation of scholarship candidates, and unless the

idea of "Approved Schools" is carried so far as to include Honor candidates as well as Pass, this work will continue. These students, however, are so few in nearly all schools that they cannot be allowed to determine the character of the general teaching. Some critics would confine us to the other extreme and make our chief business to teach what they would call the "practical," *i.e.*, the every day calculations of the store, the office, and the workshop, but if this is to be all, High School teaching is hardly needed at all.

A large and increasing number of students require a considerable amount of Mathematical knowledge as a preparation for technical study in Engineering, but, so far at any rate, these are not sufficient in numbers to have any appreciable effect on class teaching. Those who desire to enter the Normal Schools will, of course, need a good deal of Mathematical training:—how much, it will be hard to say until we have had more experience of present arrangements, and have a more definite idea of what changes are likely to come in the immediate present. To these we must add the large and increasing number for whom the High School course is the full measure of general education, and among these I count all those who are taking the pass Matriculation work without intending to take a University course in Arts, as well as those who are not taking any examination at all. As time goes on in most of our schools, pupils of this class will determine the complexion of the whole work, and for them the value of the High School course in any department must consist not so much in the knowledge acquired, as in the training given, and the outlook on human life, on human thought and on human activities afforded.

Now, while Mathematical studies lend themselves better than almost any others to the examination test, there are no studies—and I do not even expect Literature—in which the *method* of teaching, as distinct from its results will have more to do with the value of the studies as discipline. We can see this if we consider what we expect to get from the training given.

In the first place there is no other course which arouses so much and such continued interest in the proper sense of the word. I do not, of course, mean amusement, I do not even mean that the pupil would describe his work as interesting, but I do mean that, when a Mathematical lesson is properly assigned the average pupil will, without compulsion, make much more effort to prepare

it than he will any other lesson in the course, with, perhaps, the exception of Latin. The subject grips him, he can do the work, but he cannot do it without effort, and so, in the second place, it secures work—*independent work—continuous work* from the pupil, and with all the sugar-coated studies that we now get in our schools we should set a high value on what is a success from this point of view. Here again, Latin is the only subject taken by large numbers of pupils which at all compares with it. The complaints that pupils do not make proper preparation do not come, as a rule, from teachers of Mathematics and Classics, but from teachers of English and Science. In the third place we expect to get a fair measure of consecutive thought—one thing must lead to another, each step must be realized as the result of something coming before, as a foundation for something to come after, surely one of the most necessary habits of thought for any boy or girl to get. Now the point I want to make is that if we are to make the most of these advantages—if we are to arouse the best kind of interest,—that which leads to steady work at a subject that is not easy, and is sometimes distasteful, if we are to train boys and girls to habits of consecutive, and sometimes of long continued thought it must be by the excellence of our class room methods, and by a proper arrangement of work.

As regards the latter, we have, I am sure, made a very great advance in the treatment of Geometry. We have eliminated a good deal of work that was a bugbear, not so much on account of its difficulty, as because it seemed to lead nowhere, and involved Mathematical refinements which our pupils were not able to appreciate. The portions omitted might be very proper subjects of consideration for the advanced student in College classes, but were quite out of place for the beginner. We have all of us, I think, found that the new work for which room has thus been found has very materially increased the interest of our classes in the Lower, the Middle and the Upper Schools, and that the average student has acquired much greater knowledge of Geometrical truths and has acquired much more command over Geometrical reasoning. Something may have been lost in the training of the student who devotes his University course to the study of Mathematics, certainly some work formerly considered the province of the school will have to be done in the Universities, but as an element of lib-

eral education for the High School student who goes no further, the Geometry of the present is certainly a great advance on that of the past.

Is it possible to make some such improvement in our course in Algebra? If no Arithmetic is to be taken beyond the Lower School, our own inclination will probably be to supply its place to some extent by Algebraic problems, utilizing more freely than formerly the resources of Mensuration and Physics. In the past our Lower School work has been largely a drill in operations, the more complicated, apparently, the better. Those, if there are any, who have followed our text books closely, have given long questions on removing and inserting brackets, on involved factoring, on finding Highest Common Factors and Least Common Multiples, on simplifying complicated systems of fractions, which are quite unintelligible to the pupils and tend to deaden their interest. A great deal of the Middle School work on surds, indices, imaginary quantities, etc., has had a good deal the same effect. There has no doubt been a very great change for the better in recent years, but I am not sure that it has gone far enough. With some omissions, corresponding to the omissions already made in Geometry, it seems to me that our Lower School classes could quite easily master the course now laid down for the Middle Schools, and that the Middle School could be fairly asked to take a good deal of the work in Progressions, Ratio and Proportion, and equations now taken in the Upper School. Even if nothing were added for the Upper School the relief afforded there would be a considerable gain, and the additional work given to the Middle School would be quite an advantage. Accuracy in ordinary operations is of course essential, but is it true that the accuracy required can be best secured by the long and complicated calculations so often given and on which so much time is spent?

One other suggestion and I have done. Has there not been in the past something of the stereotyped and unchanging in our classroom methods? Almost every other department has been changing the content of its work, and has been forced to change or at least to reconsider its methods—not always for the better, perhaps, but still with this advantage to the teachers themselves, that the standard methods of meeting their classes have failed them and they have had to be mentally alert, and to consider for themselves the best way of presenting their subjects. It a teacher who has

been out of school, say, for thirty years were to make the rounds of our classes now, he would find remarkable changes in the teaching of English, of Science, of Moderns, even of Classics, would he find similar changes in the teaching of Mathematics? To a considerable extent the lack of change is a matter of necessity in our department, to some extent it is an advantage to our classes, for standard methods avoid great waste of time, but to some extent it involves this evil that our pupils are drinking from stagnant pools instead of from living streams. I may say for myself, and I think for others, that the change in the Geometry course has set me experimenting in many different directions and has started me preparing the lessons for my classes as I had not prepared them before since my early teaching days. It has done me good, whatever it has done for my pupils. If I am right in this, is it not worth while to experiment with the methods of presenting other subjects, so as to gain something in freshness even if there should result no permanent gain in method. It is true that no faults of ours can altogether deprive our subjects of their perennial interests—so much the more reason surely that we should strive by all possible means to increase it.

ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION.

FIRST YEAR ANCIENT HISTORY IN UNIVERSITY COLLEGE.

A. G. BROWN, UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, TORONTO.

The choice of subject may need some explanation and apology. The First Year History course was chosen for three reasons. In the first place, it partly overlaps the course given in the High Schools. In the second place, the tutorial system has been in use for the last three years in the teaching of Ancient History in University College, and something about that method and its results may be of interest to the older graduates. Lastly, many who are being taught Ancient History in the High Schools will in a year or two be taking up Ancient History in the University, and it might be well to have an interchange of opinion about the opportunities presented by the subject and the possibilities of co-operation between school and college in dealing with it.

Those of you who heard Dr. Locke's interesting address delivered at last year's convention will remember the stress he laid upon the teaching of Ancient History. Though there was a general revival of interest in Latin, Greek, he thought,—so far, at least, as the average pupil was concerned—was a lost cause. Accordingly, if Greek thought and Greek ideals were to reach the present day student, it could only be through the medium of Ancient History. That phase of the question it is not necessary to emphasize here. But there is another aspect worth considering. Some teachers of history advocate beginning with present day problems—with contemporary history—and working backwards. That plan, they say, is based on a sound pedagogical principle—"to proceed from the known to the unknown." Such a method may be excellent for the mature student; but to take the average first year man, even supposing—what is doubtful—that he does know something about present day problems, and set him adrift on the treacherous seas of contemporary history, with only a weekly lecture to

serve as chart, would, I fear, be disastrous. Even if he passed safely through the fogs raised by examiners, his voyage would be of little profit. There is a principle more applicable to the case of the first year student. "To begin with the simple and thence to proceed to the complex." The student of Biology begins with the study of the simplest organisms and advances gradually to the study of the more complex. So, too, the student of history finds in the ancient city state many modern problems in simpler forms. Questions such as the relation of church to state, the rights of the state as against the rights of the individual, the causes of the decay and overthrow of states, the possibility of combining democracy with empire, the relations of colonies to the mother-state—questions which still linger in the political arena—appear in different and less involved forms in the history of Greece and Rome. We find them again in modern history, it is true, but owing to the great size of modern states and the increased complexity of the work of government, we find them, as it were, raised to the 11th power.

Other advantages to be derived from the subject, the attainment of a standing-ground from which to weigh our present civilization, the widening of the mental horizon to be got by acquiring a knowledge of habits of life and thought different from our own, the awakening of the intelligence resulting from a comparison of present with past, time will permit us merely to mention.

The course in Ancient History in University College consists of one hour a week, devoted to a course of lectures delivered to the whole class, and a second hour, spent by each student in a tutorial group. In regard to the lectures, nothing need now be said. As to the tutorial groups, since they are comparatively new here—at least, in their application to this subject—some details will not be out of place.

The whole class is divided into groups of twelve or thirteen. The meetings of the groups are somewhat informal. Teacher and students are seated round a large table. Those who read papers remain seated. At the first meeting of a group it is explained to the members that the success of the course lies with them. They are expected to take a large share in the discussion of the various topics. These topics are arranged to cover—so far as time allows—the more important parts of the year's work. Usually, at the beginning of the term, a list of the essay subjects for the year is

given out to guide those who wish to read in advance of the class. In any case, the topics for next week's group—usually two in number—are given out, and some members of the group are asked to write short essays dealing with them. References for reading are usually suggested with each subject. The members who do not write that week are asked to read up the topic in the ordinary text-book. At the next meeting of the group, those who have essays read them aloud. Style and matter are briefly criticised by the instructor, and the subject is then discussed by students and teacher. The great object of the groups is, of course, to get the student to talk and write and think—especially think—for himself about the course. The weekly lectures furnish him with a valuable outline of the period and with some stimulating ideas; but we try to impress on the student that taking notes at lectures, and memorizing them the night before the examination, is not sufficient for his intellectual salvation. If the course is to have any permanent value for him, it will be because of the independent thought he puts into it. Accordingly, in the groups the student is encouraged to ask questions, to argue, and, in general, to do as much talking as possible, so long as he talks to the point or even somewhere in its neighbourhood. This, then, is the system in outline. Obviously there is nothing new about the principle. The idea is simply to encourage the student to do as much as possible for himself, to interest him, to get him to think for himself, to guide him by questioning until he arrives at his own results. The particular application of the principle, the tutorial method, is old in English Universities. It is now being tried on a large scale at Princeton. At Toronto in the teaching of Modern History in the University and in the teaching of Ancient History in University College this method has been in use for some three or four years. It is in use also in one or two other departments.

A few words about the working of this system in the first year might be added. There are some difficulties. The greatest arises from the necessity of grouping too many together. Where there are more than fifteen in a group, the best results can not fairly be expected. The individual does not get enough special attention. His turn to write comes too seldom. The larger the group, the more difficult it is to get the students to take part in the discussion. Not that a group of more than fifteen students is unable to do good work. The contrary has been shown by experience.

But, other things being equal, the group of ten or twelve has a considerable advantage over it.

Another fact to be noticed in this connexion is that the first year men are very unequal in ability and training. Between the man who has stood high in the matriculation scholarship examination and the man who has barely scraped through junior matriculation or has evaded matriculation altogether, there is often a difference of two or three years' training. The result is, that a subject, of interest to the better man, may not mean much to the others. It would be possible in some measure to escape this difficulty by grouping the men on a basis of ability; but the poorer man would perhaps lose more from the exclusion of the good than the good now lose from the presence of the others. The work of the better men serves as example and stimulus to the others. Their special needs can be met by assigning them more difficult subjects, by recommending wider reading and by referring to them the harder questions.

At any rate, under the present method, an encouraging measure of success is, we think, being obtained. Of course the results on the student mind are not easy to estimate accurately. But that some of them do appreciate the opportunity to ask questions and take a part in the discussion, it is impossible to doubt. An illustration might be given. When the tutorial method was first applied to First Year Ancient History, attendance on groups was purely optional, *i.e.*, no marks were given for attendance nor for essays. Yet about fifty per cent. attended with fair regularity and a good many of these wrote essays. But a better test of interest is the number of questions asked and the part taken by the students in the discussion. In these respects a considerable improvement can usually be noticed at the end of the year. Many of the men can be got to take a part in the discussion. "Man is a political animal," and the young man can be interested in subjects relating to the state. Such topics as "A Comparison of Ancient Democracy with Modern," or "Compare the British Empire with the Athenian," arouse interest and set the student thinking about the present as well as the past.

One difficulty which confronts the first-year student is due to his ignorance of what to work at and how to do the best work. That difficulty is met in a measure by the list of topics and by suggestions for reading. It is hoped that by next year a short syllabus

will be prepared and printed which will contain the more important topics in the form of essay subjects and also suggestions for reading. In such a syllabus the relative importance of the topics should, to some extent, be indicated, and the references for reading should be graded according to difficulty. Such a guide would be invaluable to the first year student.

As to what the matriculant should be expected to know, there will be some difference of opinion. Certainly more attention should be given to getting some sort of chronological framework for the Ancient History. Dates are not history, but when a first year man declares that Alexander the Great flourished about 490 B.C., and Pericles about 300, his conception of Greek history must be radically wrong. In oral examinations, first year men have been asked to give a few important dates in Roman history. Two students could not mention a single date, nor even an approximate date.

The matriculant might be expected to know something about the lives of some of the great men. Biography is always interesting. Plutarch's lives could often be used with profit. Some schools already use them. The study of geography in connexion with the history is, of course, advisable. A knowledge of some of the Greek myths is desirable. But the allotted time will allow no amplification of these suggestions.

COMMERCIAL SECTION.

*SYNOPSIS OF A PAPER AND TALK ON A TWO YEAR
COURSE IN WRITING.*

E. C. SRIGLEY, PETERBORO'.

Writing with reading is the foundation stone of the whole system of education. It has part in every occupation, from that of the laborer to the most accomplished sphere in life, and while it is the most serviceable of the manual arts it should be as pleasing as any. It is necessary and simply indispensable for mental development and for substantial mental growth, especially in the pupil's school course. It is to-day as ever one of the three R's.

In the past and also in the present, the good penman in our Colleges has been the exception and rare exception at that. Look at the miserable scrawl of the average professional man or the College Professor. What incentive is there for the average pupil to do better or want to do better? Any pupil with any reasoning ability can soon deduce the fact that the average business man or professional man has been successful without good penmanship. Why then should he spend the time necessary to acquire a good handwriting?

Good writing was never in more demand than to-day. The whole business world cries out, "Give us good Penmen," and on every hand you hear the curse against the horrible writing of the graduates of our Public Schools, our High Schools, and our Colleges.

All through our school system no adequate time is given to so important a subject. In our Normal Schools, it is true, we get lessons in penmanship, but of what use unless we can write the system imparted, not scribble it. Of what use is a critic on writing unless that critic can show by writing what he is talking about?

Were the average teacher to know no more practically of the other subjects on our curriculum, it is doubtful if the position would be occupied by such a one very long.

Why then is the public demand not met by better trained teachers in this subject? Perhaps the fault lies in the old saying, "Writers are born, not made." I do not think this is altogether to blame. Let us see if another reason cannot be deduced. Some forty to sixty years ago the pupils in our Public Schools were better writers than the pupils of to-day. Let us look in at a school of the old quill pen period. The teacher prepared the pens, handed them out and all prepared for work. See with what care he explains the form of the letter. See also with what severity he insists upon position and often the ruler comes into play. You are certain that the two things, form and position, were everything with the old writing master. He got good writing and thanks to the style of pen used, he got a light touch so essential to good writing. Do not the people, who to-day are 50 to 70 years of age and who were taught by the old writing master, write a nice hand, legible and stately?

But you say, "Why have we not that nice writing to-day"? The business world demanded speed, slow writing was a waste of time for business and then came our first era of movement. Movement was everything but at what a sacrifice. We got speed but all form was lost and we have the miserable scrawl of the average pupil.

To-day it is a fact that the Business Colleges have set us on the right road, and we know that in those Institutions they can turn out good, speedy and legible writers. If that is so why can our Public Schools not do it? Let us give some reasons for this. The teachers in our Public Schools can not write, whereas every Business College has a teacher who is a specialist in that subject. Again, they bring forth the old saying, "Writers are born, not made," and therefore it is useless for them to waste the time training. As a result of this they are not in much danger of losing positions by not being able to write if they have high academic standing and can teach the other subjects successfully. Let us now look at these reasons and see how fallacious they are.

1. Writers are born, not made. I make the statement and can prove it that a good penman can be made of anyone who has not the palsy or St. Vitus Dance, even though the person has reached quite an age.

As proof of this I give the following :

1. My own experience. The first two years I taught school I was told by the Inspector that unless I became a better writer I could never succeed as a teacher. The first year I practised some but without result as my work was aimless. I gave up teaching and entered a Business College and there they guaranteed to make a good writer of me if I would promise to follow their directions. I tried to carry out their instructions and they made a writer of me. I admit I was a horrible scribbler.

2. All people who have lost their right hand by accident or otherwise and who have been taught to write by a proper system are good writers with the left hand.

3. I myself had the privilege of training one who lost his right hand by accident and in two months he said he was a better writer with his left hand than he had ever been with his right.

4. Every Business College will guarantee to make you a good writer and only ask that you follow directions.

I do not think further proof is necessary.

How can the present state of penmanship in the province be remedied?

1. Make every Public School teacher a good writer.

If every School Board put up the price of a Correspondence Course in penmanship and insisted that the teacher take it up, each section would reap benefits equal to ten times the cost of the course. (The live and far seeing teacher would not wait for a School Board to pay for such a course.)

2. Let the Government give adequate time to the subject in our Normal and Model Schools and turn out good writers and see that the teachers are competent to impart a good systematic course.

Let our teachers become good penmen and I have no fear of the results of our pupils.

What is the public demand?

The public demands a penmanship that is directly legible and rapidly written, but not possessing any special artistic merit. It must be more of a service than a fine art. But if we can get speed with the form, never let us sacrifice form.

What are the essentials to good writing?

1. Good position.

2. Good copies.
3. Clear mental pictures of the copies.
4. Dexterity of hand and arm to produce these at will.

The ideal position is one in which no uncalled for weight is thrown on the writing arm and no obstacle placed to its free easy movement. The front position is the only one desirable but school desks of the present day force us to use the right side position.

After many trials and seeing many positions adopted by others I am of the opinion that the Spencerian position is the true one for our Public Schools.

In school I insist upon position always and very often have to give special exercises to cultivate it.

At home I have the pupils use what I call the looking-glass method. This is to place a looking-glass on the opposite side of the table on which they are writing and they can see at all times the position of hand, pen, paper, and arm.

Position gives slant. I suppose more nonsense has been written on this one point than any other in writing. The natural tendency when writing with the left hand is a left slant and when writing with a right hand is a right slant. I never bother about the slant for I know if my pupils have the proper position they will have a suitable slant. Position gives us slant, and attend to the position, and slant will take care of itself.

The system. The system to be taught must be one in which each part depends on or develops out of the preceding part. It should be a system that is plain, simple and capable of being rapidly written. There is no best method. Each teacher must determine what is best suited to his own conditions and particular class of pupils.

The direct route is through the cultivation of a good easy movement by exercises and then by the study of the letters singly and in combinations. While the general presentation may be collective the instruction must be largely individual with constant supervision of the pupil's work. In addition to class work there must be special outside home work, and the co-operation on the part of the other teachers on the staff in maintaining neatness and legibility.

I have found the following plan to work nicely: I had examinations at stated periods, one a home work test, supposed to be their

best, and another a speed test at 15 words per minute at least. The papers are collected and pinned together and placed in the drawer of the teacher's desk. At any time a teacher by comparing the work in penmanship handed in can see whether the pupil has done the best work.

I always expect the other teachers not to accept anything that is not up to the standard.

Interest must be awakened, but a certain degree of firmness must be maintained, and I always insist upon a specified amount of practice and neatness of forms.

There can be no thorough honest work when work is done in a careless manner.

Methods used in imparting the system illustrated :

Method 1. Same work for all pupils.

(a) The first part of lesson a movement exercise for all.

(b) Pupils work from copy of letters on blackboard, given singly and in combinations.

(c) Copy of letters given each pupil in work book.

(d) Home work for all, taken from copy on the board.

While this plan worked very well I did not get satisfactory results from the poor writers.

Method 2. Individual work.

Each pupil was required to make a small copy book (blank) in which I placed the copy for that pupil, either movement exercises or letters as the pupil required. With this we also had collective movement exercises, but the work in the main purely individual. This plan is admirable in so far as the work is concerned, but the poor and lazy workers did not do as much as when they were in competition with the rest of the class.

Method 3. This year I have followed a combination of methods one and two. Method 1 for the good writers, and method 2 for the poor writers, with the stipulation that they could work as fast as they liked, and should they be able to catch up to the good writers they could take the general work. This plan I have found very good so far.

Special points. I use Spencerian pen points No. 1, for with a fine pen I can better develop a light touch.

With new pupils I draw attention to the following :

1. The copies or list of capitals, small letters and figures that must be used in all their Commercial work. These are placed at the top of a convenient blackboard and are there for the term.

2. That during the first week's lessons I give to each pupil a copy of his or her name. This signature is used when signing documents, etc., in their business work. When each can write his or her signature equal to the one given I give a better copy to each.

The paper and talk was illustrated by movement exercises, small letters, figures and capital letters, arranged in the order in which they should be taught. While the system does not differ in the main points from that given by Sprott in his work, it differs in that no two forms are given for any one letter.

The paper and talk was further illustrated by the examination tests of the last two years, and also by the work books of a great many of the pupils of Commercial 1 and Commercial 2 of the Peterboro' Collegiate Institute.

HOW TO ATTAIN SPEED IN SHORTHAND.

W. BAIRD, TORONTO.

The whole process of mastering shorthand for practical purposes may be summed up as follows:—

1. To get the system thoroughly into the mind.

2. To get it out of the mind into the fingers.

3. To train the mind and hand to work so perfectly in unison that the one shall be faithfully registering mental photographs of certain spoken words while the other is as faithfully transferring similar impressions taken just before.

I would like to call your attention to some of the important features that lead to a thorough knowledge of the theory. It has been said that the great value of the study of Euclid, as a mental discipline, lies in the fact that the problems must be attacked systematically and in their order. It is almost impossible to master any one problem until all that precede it have been carefully

studied and solved. The superficial student who shirks this task of conquering each difficulty as it presents itself to him, is certain to meet with failure in the end. Though the methods of Phonography were not quite so stringent as those of Euclid, yet if it is to be used to the best advantage it must be learned thoroughly and systematically. It is therefore very important that each lesson is completely mastered before proceeding to the next. No better guide can be found than the Twentieth Century Instructor or the Short Course. They are the outcome of nearly two-thirds of a century of practical experience. Every step in the system is presented in its proper sequence.

The rules should be thoroughly learned. Not only know them so as to be able to recite them, but to be able to apply them without hesitation. When rules are learned in this way they become a part of the writer. He writes words correctly without giving the rule a thought; the sound of the word suggests the correct outline. It is important, however, that the pupils study the reason for such and such an outline of a word. There is a danger that pupils try to apply memory instead of reason, when they have only a few lines each night to prepare. It is therefore wise to question them frequently as regards outlines of words. It is helpful also to give pupils lists of words on the rules as they are learned. Books can be obtained with good material. Each exercise should be practised from five to ten times according to the difficulties that are presented in it. This impresses the rules and familiarizes the writers with the outlines of a great many common words.

There are no "short cuts" in Phonography. Practice and systematic study are essential to the achievement of the highest success. Every principle, no matter how trivial, if not thoroughly mastered will prove detrimental in the race. Each successive item of knowledge is more readily retained when all that precedes it has been thoroughly mastered. Ex. Rules for circle S, etc.

At the end of his studies he will have every abbreviating method, every grammalogue and every correct principle of writing at his finger ends. Thus equipped he will be able to bring into play at the right moment every available device that tends to further the acquisition of speed.

The Short Course is an improvement on the Twentieth Century Instructor inasmuch as it introduces writing in position from the

first. Also the grammalogues, phrases and contractions are introduced gradually. Where writing in position is not taught until after the theory is learned an enormous difficulty is presented to the pupil. He has formed the habit of thinking the consonant outline before he thinks the vowels but when he starts to write in position he must think the vowel and then the outline. Then it becomes quite difficult to change. When writing in position is taught from the first this difficulty is obviated.

The use of phrases and contractions from the first also familiarize these to students, in such a way as is impossible when a great number of them are introduced at one time. It was often at this point of the work in the instructor that pupils were apt to take a dislike to the work.

The work in the Short Course should be supplemented by plenty of outside exercises, giving lists of words or sentences including the principles that have been taken up. This will insure a knowledge of the vowels.

Before dealing with the subject of practice for gaining speed it might not be out of place to offer a few remarks on the subject of tools with which the work is to be accomplished. A good pencil and good paper are essential to good work in Shorthand. Reporting note books that open away from the pupils are the best for School Work. In no case should pupils be allowed to write on unruled paper. A good fountain pen is probably preferable to the lead pencil, but in school work we must of necessity use the lead pencil. The kind of pencil depends on the writer, but should be such as will enable him to readily distinguish between light and heavy lines. HB. in some cases, B. in others. The young stenographer should find out what kind suits him best and should make a rule to use them always. This is a frequent source of trouble with us. Some pupils will try to write on any paper with any kind of pencil, an HH. or one about an inch long and then complain that they cannot read their writing. It is certain that we can write faster with the familiar pencil on a familiar note book than with unfamiliar.

Rapid writing in Shorthand depends to a considerable extent on the manner in which the pencil is held. The position of the body and holding of the pencil should be much the same as the position in the muscular movement of writing. The pencil should not be grasped tightly and the hand should be moved

directly from the forearm and not from the wrist. The left hand should hold the page down flat and be ready to turn the page when necessary.

The whole of the grammalogues should be securely locked in the memory. There is no royal road to learning them, but to use a familiar term keep "plugging" at them until you know them. The Short Course relieves the situation somewhat. This method may be found helpful. Take a double sheet of foolscap and fold it over into inch folds. Copy the signs desired to be learned, one on each line down the page in the first column. After having gone over them several times close the book and try to write the logograms in the second column. If there are any you do not know refer to the book. Then fold under the first division and write the grammalogues in the next column. This sheet can then be kept and referred to in a week's time and again written out in the same way. If this method be used the whole list can be gone over in about ten minutes. By the time the sheet is filled there will not be many forms but are quite familiar.

In learning contractions some advocate writing two or three lines of each form. There is the danger in this method that the pupils write the outlines once and copy it the rest and though they get practise in writing they know no more about it than if it had only been written once. I find that when I allow them to learn them any way they choose I get better results than when I request them to learn in a particular way.

The early part of the work should be taken with a view to getting neat and accurate outlines. I do not mean to say that pupils should never be asked to write rapidly while learning the theory. Work from the text book that pupils have practised five, or six times and know all the outlines, may be read at sixty words a minute or over and they should be able to get every word correct.

When pupils have gained a fair familiarity with the system you may begin to practise with a view to speed. At this juncture you must proceed cautiously. The style of writing begins to crystallize and takes a permanence of character that will always distinguish it. There is always a tendency as speed increases to increase the size of the outlines and unless pupils are carefully watched will acquire a loose, undecided form that is quite illegible. No definite size can be given that will apply in every case

for what suits one writer will not suit another. It is preferable to have the pupils use the small neat outlines, but if they cannot handle this well they will often do better work by using a larger flowing outline with less exactitude. The following points should also be carefully noted, distinguish between light and heavy strokes, keep the half lengths short, and the double lengths long, also have ses and sway circles err on large side; fl large, and fr small.

Pupils who have a thorough mastery of the theory should be able to write new work at the rate of sixty words per minute but for the novelty of the conditions. There is usually a lack of confidence, a nervous apprehension that it is impossible to take down new work at any speed and consequently there is a failure on the first attempt, and possibly on the second, but as they gain a little more experience and become more confident they begin to realize that it is not as difficult as at first anticipated. One of the chief difficulties that present themselves to the beginner is the ability to think an outline for a new word and keep in mind the sentence. This can only be accomplished by practise and there will be repeated failures on this account. This plan may be used to advantage. Read a sentence of some length and ask a pupil to repeat it. When he is part way through it ask him for the outline of one of the words and then ask him to repeat the remainder. Thus, "We have to-day shipped you a car load of pine lumber, which should reach you by Thursday evening at the latest." Ask him to repeat as far as lumber, etc.

After the pupils are able to take down work at fifty words a minute, the gaining of speed is chiefly a matter of practise. Those who have someone to read to them at home will attain speed more quickly than those who practise from their books. One practises from sound, the correct way, while the other practises from sight.

There are three important assistants that help in the work, contractions, phraseograms and intersections.

Phraseograms are a fruitful source of speed if handled judiciously. The following points should be carefully noted: It should be easily written and easily read. Pupils are inclined to write any words together irrespective of easy outlines. Such phrases lose time. Common phrases should be learned as contractions.

In acquiring speed in our schools where the pupils have only twenty or twenty-five minutes to spend on home-work in stenography it is a somewhat slow journey climbing to a speed of one hundred words per minute. It is, therefore, necessary to vary the work as much as possible to prevent pupils from becoming tired and discouraged. I adopt this plan of work. Along with a portion from the text book which they have to write three or four times I write a letter on the board which they take down and practise three times at home. These I dictate to them the next day at whatever rate they are writing, say eighty words per minute. After having practised these I expect them to be able to write with correct outlines and good phraseograms and be able to read it without hesitation. After this the hard words only may be written and have the class write them down. With this I dictate a portion of the new material, which they sometimes transcribe and sometimes make out at home so that they can read it from their notes the next day. New material should be simple for beginners such as Dickens' Christmas Stories, Aesops Fables, etc. The practise of reading phonetic literature should be indulged in as much as possible. We read Christmas Carol in class. Give one page for home-work to read and write once. Have students read from their notes next day. This will insure good work being done and done well. It familiarizes students with the outlines of a great many words and phrases and assists wonderfully in transcribing. Those who read are quick transcribers. A pupil who writes one hundred words a minute should be able to read his notes the same. For this reason everything should be read that is written though sometimes a story may be read and have the class write without asking them to read. I also have one lesson a week in which I dictate four or five short letters which I have them transcribe with ink and when they are sufficiently adept at the typewriter, have them typewritten. The question of supervision is a difficult task when pupils can write ninety or one hundred words per minute, since twenty minutes' work means from seven to ten pages of work. This plan may be adopted occasionally. After reading a letter, have the pupils change books and correct what errors they find, then before they return the book dictate the letter again, and have them write in the other book. It is also a very helpful practise to have the class write a sentence such as, "I am in receipt of your letter of the 24th

inst. and I regret to state that I am unable to give you the information that you require." Have them think out the best phraseograms to use. Then have them write for exactly a minute to find out how many times they can write it. It is helpful as well as interesting.

With the third year class this year, we have read and written "The Sign of Four" during the first part of the term, taking about three pages a day. We also use Commercial Correspondence in Shorthand. This familiarizes students with the correct shorthand forms. For work on outlines we use the Reporting Practice. Besides this work we always take some sight work. This year we wrote all of Rip Van Winkle, The Headless Horseman of Sleepy Hollow and several other short stories. Of these I read about a page one day and have students read this from their notes the next day.

Towards the end of the third year students are given a good deal of work to transcribe on the typewriter.

In speed practice it is not wise to insist too closely on correct outlines. What we want to aim at is freedom from mental hesitation, and to acquire this there must be a certain amount of freedom. If the outline is easily written and easily read it is allowed.

Stenographers should not attempt to take down a speaker that is talking faster than they can write. They cannot read their notes and the work is positively hurtful. If they attempt such they should only write what they can write properly and omit the rest. If possible have each part that they get a full statement. This work should not be attempted until pupils can write ninety or one hundred words per minute.

In conclusion, I might sum up with the following hints:—

1. There should be thoroughness in study of rules.
2. Read extensively printed shorthand.
3. Vocalize proper names and unfamiliar words if possible.
4. Insert initial vowels wherever time will permit.
5. Endeavor to follow the sense of the matter you are writing.
6. Be sure of your grammalogues and contractions.
7. Write all words with short outlines in position.
8. Read everything written.

9. Punctuate, especially the period.
10. Exaggerate large hooks, circles, loops, double lengths and curves.
11. Use good material.
12. Mix a certain amount of common sense with the other ingredients.

Outside of its utilitarian value it is one of the best subjects for the training of the three sides of a man's nature, the Intellectual, Volitional, and Moral. The memory is strengthened and developed in a wonderfully efficient manner while dictation work gives a confidence that could not be attained so quickly by any other subject, and the training in voluntary attention is not approached by any other. All these things must be brought to the highest state of efficiency when the maximum speed is reached, for then the hand is the ready servant of the will, anticipating its desires and hastening to fulfill them, and action becomes almost involuntary and so the knowledge obtained has been converted into character.

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

WHAT CONSTITUTES A GOOD TEXT-BOOK.

D. J. GOGGIN, D.C.L., TORONTO.

READING.

Speaking broadly, the teacher of reading aims to prepare the pupil to utter intelligently and intelligibly the sentence forms appearing on the printed page. He does this in order that the pupil may be able to read matter bearing upon his studies and his activities, and matter that will feed his soul—nourish his imagination, his aspirations, his noblest impulses. The former is the literature of knowledge; the latter, the literature of power.

He endeavours to accomplish these ends in three ways: (1) through methods of teaching that will early develop, in the pupil, the power to recognize word and sentence forms; (2) through subject matter so intrinsically interesting from the first that the desire to read will be strong; and (3) through voice culture that oral reading will be intelligent, sympathetic and musical.

In the construction of reading books one is concerned directly with the second of these and indirectly with the other two.

SUBJECT MATTER.

Each book of the series must contain readable things to read—matter suitable for the purposes of oral reading and also so interesting in itself, or in the emotions it arouses, that the pupil will look upon his book as a companion and not as a task master.

The evolution of the School Readers has proceeded on much the same lines in Canada as in the United States. Lindley Murray's English Readers and McGuffey's Readers in the United States and the Irish National series introduced into Upper Canada in 1846, covered the subject matter of almost the entire field of

human interests—history, science, politics, philosophy, economics, literature—taught the whole round of virtues, and inspired impulses towards ideal living.

At that time, the readers and the Bible were almost the only books to be found in the homes of the pioneers. Under such conditions the subject matter of the readers would necessarily be informational as well as inspirational.

Twenty-two years later, in 1868, the Canadian series of Readers—"The Red Series" were authorized for Ontario. These contained less informational matter and more standard literature. Books and newspapers were more readily obtainable. It was felt that the school reader should no longer be a compilation in which the presentment of information was the paramount object.

In 1884 the Ontario Readers were authorized, the subject matter being taken mainly from standard literature. Readers in history, biography, travel and science were appearing. The newspaper, the magazine, and the library, as purveyors of information, were much more useful and more up-to-date than any school text could be, and easily accessible.

I have examined the leading series of school readers issued during recent years in Great Britain, the United States and Canada, and I find that the subject matter of these books is taken almost entirely from standard literature. It is not selected with a view to supplying general information or increasing industrial efficiency: such information is better obtained through special texts, oral instruction, and work in the laboratory or field. The subject matter of recent readers begins with rhymes and jingles, myths and folk tales, passing on to adventure and romance in which imposing personages are exhibited in action, thence to selections exhibiting high ideals and examples of personal life and conduct, of civic and national life and duty as set forth in ballad and lay and ode, in drama, in vivid description, in stirring oration—not only the literature of the past, but literature having in it the flavour of to-day and dealing with the life and the institutions familiar to the pupil.

School Readers are, for thousands, their first introduction to our British classics, to the great writers who loving their land and their kind have voiced the aspirations of their noblest and have given fit expression to the best that has been thought and said and done by their fellows. Much of the world's greatest litera-

ture is beyond the mental reach of pupils in the public schools, but in the vast fields below the heights there is an embarrassing richness of suitable material and the problem is one of selection.

The principle that must guide in selecting matter for reading books is its suitability for purposes of teaching reading. Literature may be good and even great, and yet not lend itself readily to the purpose in view, and so be excluded. It is not with literature as an art product, as an ethical teacher, an aesthetic influence, a stimulus to the imagination, a cultivator of taste in language, that we are mainly concerned. Literature is all these of course and more, but these qualities do not dictate the choice of selections. We are not indifferent to these; so far as reading is concerned these are valuable by-products which we conserve with care. The more of these in selections suitable for teaching reading the better. To teach such subject matter as a reading lesson is one task, to teach it as literature is a different one, and while it is difficult to fix an exact boundary between these tasks, and while each aids the other indirectly, it is necessary to have clearly in mind the main purposes of each exercise.

The pupil who masters a modern reader becomes acquainted with a considerable body of choice literature and with the names of representative writers. Under the general guidance of a teacher he may be led to read, for his pleasure, matter supplementary to that in his texts, be introduced to famous books, and learn to "brouse" at leisure in the library which ought to be, and shortly will be, in every school. To aid in this direction there should be indicated, at the close of selections in the Readers, suitable collateral readings and, in an appendix, a list of books for seat and home reading suited to the needs of each class. Such books should be included in the school library. If these lists are graded with care, they will point the way to much that might otherwise remain unknown to the pupil who lacks a guide, and enable him to cover a wide range of reading during his school course.

VOICE CULTURE.

The training of the voice so that utterance of thought and feeling may be distinct, sympathetic and musical, forms an important part of the teacher's work. To be effective, such work must

be systematic and persistent. There are simple exercises in vocalization and articulation, in modulation and sentence-accent, and in management of the breath that have stood the test of practice. These exercises, if included in an appendix, will furnish teachers with material for definite work in voice training, corresponding to the Concone exercises that are so valuable in the production of the singing voice.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

The reading books in earlier days had few illustrations and these were poor. During the past fifteen years the artistic side of reading books has received even greater attention than the literary content. Publishers have competed with each other in illustrating readers until the modern books, especially the junior ones, have become art books at greatly increased cost without corresponding advance in their worth as aids in learning to read. These superb illustrations have taken captive even school officials in high places.

The crest of that wave has been reached. Publishers who have paid from \$2,000 to \$10,000 for the production of a Primer find themselves unable to secure a reasonable return on their investment.

Teachers are protesting against an excessive use of pictures as a hindrance to the free play of the child's imagination. He delights to picture to himself the scenes or actions described in his reader. The formation of this mental picture-making habit is essential in the teaching of literature. Drawings may aid in making an action or scene more vivid but they do not take the place of the mental picturing. "The world of literature is the world of the imagination; and its ideals, its activities, its types of character find their best reflection in the mirror of the mind." What is needed is simple illustrations that really illustrate where illustration is necessary—outline drawings such as children delight to make—and in each book a limited number of good copies of famous pictures for their cultural value. With the cost of production thus greatly lessened more reading matter can be supplied and at reduced rates.

TYPE.

The preservation of the eyesight of the growing child is very important. It is in the elementary classes that strain is most injurious. In recent years much attention has been given by specialists in physiology and psychology to the subject of suitable type, paper and ink for school books. It is gratifying to find that the practice of printers and the conclusions of these experts are now in substantial harmony.

It is generally agreed that, within certain limits, eye strain increases as the size of type decreases and that words in large type are recognized more quickly than those in small type. Javal has shown also that the thickness of the vertical strokes in letters increases legibility and decreases eye strain. Cohn in his "Hygiene of the Eye" gives the thickness desirable as .25 millimetres, which is practically "old style" type as printers call it.

The size of the type now recommended for Primers is 18 point, for Second Readers 14 point—that used in the Ontario Part Two, and for Third and Fourth Readers 12 point—that used in the Ontario Second Reader. Each letter should be clean cut.

The space between the lines—the leading as it is called—is an important factor in increasing legibility. In the Primers the leading should be 4.5 mm., the spacing used in the new Primers and Second Readers issued by the Canada Publishing Company and Morang and Company; in the Second and Third Readers the leading should be 4 mm. and in the Fourth at least 3.6 mm. The minimum for adults as given by Cohn is 2.5 mm. The size of type and the leading used in the Ontario Third and Fourth Readers are less than hygienic requirements demand.

There is general agreement amongst experts in favour of shorter rather than longer lines. The shorter line calls for less eye-movement and consequently is an aid to ease and speed in reading. The maximum length is usually placed at 90 mm., that is 3.54 inches, but Javal insists that this is too great. When we remember that a column in the International Dictionary is two and one-quarter inches wide, in Harper's Monthly two and three-eighths inches, in a newspaper two and one-half inches, and recall the ease with which a line in any one of these is visualized compared with a line of three and one-half inches—the width of the page in an ordinary text—we shall be inclined to agree with

Javal that the extra eye accommodations needed in reading long lines and the strain arising therefrom are strong arguments in favour of the use of shorter lines.

Within ten years some publishers have produced Primers nearly square in form and with lines four inches in length. I know of no competent specialists in the hygiene of the eye and the psychology of reading who have expressed themselves in favour of lines of this length. The consensus of opinion is strongly in favour of shorter lines, and I may add of lines of uniform length throughout a series of school books. In the past the publisher has decided questions of type, leading and length of line. Observations of the eyes of school children force home the necessity for expert advice on this subject and, for the future, it is imperative that no book, whatever its literary or pedagogical worth, shall be authorized for school use until, in these matters, it meets hygienic requirements.

PAPER.

The paper should be a chemical pulp and rag paper containing no free ground wood. In colour it should be pure white without gloss, though if half-tone illustrations are used, it must be supercalendered. Some prefer a yellowish tinge, but perfectly black ink on a white background gives the greatest legibility.

SPELLING.

A pupil learns to spell in order that he may convey his thoughts to others through writing. The words he will use in writing his thoughts will be those in his own vocabulary, common words whose pronunciation he knows and with whose meaning he is familiar. It is upon the spelling of these words that he needs instruction and drill rather than upon words outside his vocabulary. Men test our ability to spell not upon the lists piled up in the spelling books, but upon the words we use in correspondence. As a boy I learned the spelling of hundreds of words outside my vocabulary then, and a number of them have not yet been admitted into it. I still have to consult the dictionary occasionally.

Each year through his studies in English the pupil's vocabulary will be enriched, and so each year the difficult words in the previous years' lists will be reviewed and the new words mastered. It is possible to make a list of such words, and such lists have been made. These graded lists of words, grouped where they possess a common phonetic element, grouped as homonyms, as derivatives, as lists revealing a few general rules in spelling, as lists of irregular words—many of them the little ones that cause so much trouble—will give us the materials for a spelling book.

It will be a little book. It will not compete with the dictionary in number of examples. It will not contain the whole vocabulary of a scholarly adult. It will omit classes of words so regular in form that to make errors in the spelling of them is difficult. It will leave the spelling of technical terms in Arithmetic, Grammar and Science, in Medicine, Law, Theology and Philosophy, together with the names of places in Geography and History, to be taught incidentally as they arise. It will omit these classes of words in order that ample drill may be provided upon the limited number of words that pupils in the Public Schools have in their vocabulary. Finally, it will take for granted that the pupil after he leaves school, will consult his dictionary when in doubt about the spelling of a new or even an old word, just as he will a Gazetteer, a Year Book, or the Canadian Almanac respecting a place, a date or a fact.

Have we not been attempting too much in spelling and failing to do satisfactory work? There are still some schools where the pupils are required to learn the spelling of every word in each reading lesson before the next reading lesson can be taken up, a procedure hurtful to each exercise. I have here on a card, 7x12, a list of a little over 900 words covering the spelling work prescribed for the three primary grades (two divisions in each) in the schools of Minneapolis. There are 230 words for the first grade, 350 for the second and 350 for the third. In another city 300 words are assigned for the first grade, 500 for the next grade, and 650 for the third. Two words a day with a weekly review will cover 300 words in the school year. Four words a day with a review on the fifth day and a review of these reviews each month will, in a school year of 40 weeks, cover 500 words easily.

At this rate a child entering school at six and leaving at thirteen will have mastered the spelling of 3,500 words deemed diffi-

cult, will know the spelling of hundreds of technical words met with in his school studies, besides that very considerable body of "regular" words about whose spelling there is no practical difficulty.

Let us be less ambitious. Let us consider more carefully the needs of the Public School pupil in spelling, and his limitations, and shape our texts accordingly.

LITERATURE.

The study of literature should begin with the pupil's first day in school. Up to the age of nine or ten the child is a talking and hearing animal and, next to action, nothing so interests him as hearing and telling stories. For children of this age—the Santa Claus age—there is a vast mass of suitable material in the old myths, folk-tales, and hero-tales. The problem is one of selection based upon a principle.

Grimm and Perrault and Andersen and the Arabian Nights, and collections such as Scudder's Fables and Folk Stories, Andrew Lang's Fairy Books and others of this type supply ample materials for story telling till the children arrive at that later stage when they prefer the hero-tales of the Greek, the Roman, the Hebrew, the Teuton and the Celt. The effect of such tales in increasing the child's desire to learn to read is obvious. Nor should story telling cease with the junior classes. What Charles Lamb in his book of Tales did for Shakespeare, we shall yet have done for the great classics of the race. The senior classes in our Public Schools will follow with interest and profit the story of Prometheus, or Hector, or Faust, or Roland, or Arthur, if told effectively by a teacher who knows how to omit.

It has been suggested that a list of suitable tales for the story telling period should be inserted in each reader as a suggestion to teachers who appreciate the value of this work as a foundation for the more formal study of literature later on. All story telling or story reading to classes should have, in the eyes of the pupils, enjoyment as its aim. It must not be considered as a study or a task. The tales told in the lower class form excellent supplementary reading matter in a higher class. Children in Part Two read with pleasure the stories in Scudder's Fables and Folk Stories and have delight in retelling them. For the higher classes it is

now possible to supply, apart from that contained in the reading books, suitable literary matter in ample quantity at low prices.

Each book will contain a literary whole or wholes, with a brief introduction and a minimum of notes, be well printed on good paper and neatly bound. The Riverside Literature Series, and Nelson's Sixpenny Classics, Fourpenny Supplementary Readers, or Threepenny Cycle of Songs are types of the books described. Dent's Everyman's Library, and Macmillan's Pocket Classics are types of books, at 25 cents each, covering a wide range of good literature. With these and other series to choose from it is not difficult to-day to provide pupils with an ample supply of choice literature for study and recreation.

SHOULD THE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION BE ABOLISHED?

J. D. DENNY, OTTAWA.

Why is this subject again before us? It has been considered at many preceding Conventions, at these it has received free, full and frank discussion with the result, that as a body of teachers we have been pretty well of one mind on this vexed question. Examinations, within reasonable limits and of a proper nature, are a very essential and a very valuable part of true education. Examinations such as the Entrance, which have a qualifying value, are necessary in a system of education.

Let us consider what are some of the evils of examinations which have caused the present desire for their abolition.

1. The character of the examination papers has been such that they did not test the intelligence of the pupil, but only his ability to give answers of technical accuracy to questions, narrow and mechanical in their nature. This abuse of the examination has occasioned mechanical and rote methods of teaching which have perverted the best efforts of the teacher and made the examination the arbitrary goal of all instruction.

2. They have led to the use of "School Helps," cribs, cramming and other false methods of study.

3. They have hindered teachers from teaching according to their better knowledge and judgment. Teachers do not feel free. They find it necessary to prepare their pupils solely for the examination and to teach with that end in view. They put their energy into what will "count" on the examination. It is by the result of this examination that their success as teachers has been judged.

4. The character of the questions has led frequently to unjust valuation being placed on a pupil's ability. Too much credit has been given for a retentive memory and too little for the power to reason.

But the abolition of the written examination is a very radical remedy for evils which can be more successfully overcome, or at least reduced to such a minimum as to cause no anxiety.

These baneful influences have been created largely by either the character of the tests, by improper valuing of the answers, by the use made of the results, or by the fact that the examination alone has been made the sole basis for promotion.

In regard to the nature of the examinations, the questions employed should test the pupil's knowledge of the subject and not his ability to repeat words. They should test his power to think, to reason and to express his knowledge, and they should not be too difficult for the ability of the average pupil.

Permit me, here, to take objection to the character of the "Literature" paper of the last examination. It was decidedly too difficult for Entrance pupils, being much more suitable for pupils in Form II. of the High School. This I believe was occasioned not by any desire of the Examiner to display his own wisdom, but from the fact that he had been for some years out of touch with the work of Entrance pupils and thereby not intimately acquainted with the mental literary development of the average pupil of the age of thirteen years. This could be remedied by the appointment to the Entrance Board of Examiners, of one Public School Principal directly associated with Entrance work, although not teaching the same.

Again, the examination results have been used for the purpose of making comparison between schools and between teachers. These comparisons are wrong; they are odious. They put a premium on special cramming and false teaching, and lead to the unjust judgment of teachers by per cent. tables. This would be

largely nullified if instead of making the examination the only basis for promotion, the daily success of the pupil in his work was considered as an equally important factor.

It is claimed by some and with considerable truth that a *proper* examination will fairly represent the recitation success of the majority of the pupils examined. Since I have gained experience as a teacher I have never been very much disappointed nor surprised by the standing of my pupils in written tests. But I find that with some pupils the examination causes a nervous excitement, anxiety and inclination to over study which hinders them from doing themselves justice. The examination should be permitted to come unheralded, without any fuss over it or in view of it.

A competent teacher will have no trouble in keeping a record of the comparative success of his pupils in their class recitations, in fact, the character of the pupil's daily work is carried in the memory and judgment is ready at any time to render a verdict; but to ensure complete success it would be advisable for the teacher to record at least weekly, throughout the year, the standing of his pupils and from the average yearly standing prepare a written recommendation, for the local Board of Examiners, of those pupils who, in his opinion, are qualified for admission to the High School. This recommendation I would use to supplement the written examination. Such a class record if kept of all the classes in our schools would be a great assistance in classification, especially for a new teacher in a rural school.

If we obtain wrong results by trusting to examinations, it is not because the examinations are misleading or inequitable, but because we use them too exclusively and do not make due use of other means of judging.

It is suggested to abolish the written examination and to admit to our High Schools on only the recommendation of the teacher. This radical innovation is neither wise nor advisable. It is the swing of the pendulum to the opposite end of the arc. We must be cautious. It is absolutely necessary to have some check on these recommendations. Teachers as a whole cannot report judiciously upon the standing of their pupils, for several reasons. The most important of which are: (1) Want of experience (which is characteristic of the majority of our rural teachers) leads them to misjudge the ability of their pupils. (2) Desire of some teachers

to please certain parents or trustees who wish their children promoted whether qualified or not. (3) Anxiety to be rid of some incorrigible boy may lead to his recommendation for promotion.

We will admit that the examination is a bad master, but it is a good servant. Used judiciously it teaches the pupil method, promptitude, energy of mind and self-reliance. It demands from him accuracy and fulness of memory, concentrated attention and the power to shape and arrange his thoughts. It is also an assistance to the teacher, because it prevents haphazard classification and saves him from the ill-will of disappointed parents when their children are not promoted. The written examination also prevents that inaccurate and inconsequential thinking which results when oral teaching is used exclusively. There is a great difference between knowing a thing and being able to express your knowledge in words. The written examination trains the pupil's power of expression.

We must also bear in mind that the pressure of the Entrance examination has been greatly reduced during the last few years by limiting the number of subjects for written examination. This has proved very satisfactory, as there are subjects such as Literature and History in which it is impossible to properly judge a pupil's knowledge by a written test. These subjects can also be taught better if there is no examination required in them. This principle might also be extended by the elimination of much of the technical or formal Grammar now required and placing more emphasis on composition, particularly oral composition. I would also do away with much of the Arithmetic which involves intricate reasoning and unfamiliar abstract terms beyond the understanding of the pupil, and would substitute for it, thoroughness in mechanical work based on the four fundamental rules. Merchants and bank managers have been complaining for years that the work in Arithmetic in our Public Schools is inaccurate and that pupils cannot deal with simple problems of a practical character. This is due to trying to teach too much and to teach questions concerning commercial transactions about which the pupil cannot practically know anything.

A premium is also placed on lack of thoroughness by examiners awarding almost full marks for the correct principle of a question, without insisting on satisfactory accuracy in the mechanical work. Furthermore sufficient prominence is not given

to the simple questions dealing with the practical or economic side of life. I consider it is advisable to have at least one-fourth of the questions in our Arithmetic examination consist of purely mechanical work based on the four fundamental rules. We would thus secure greater accuracy and speed in mechanical work, and the assurance that the very essential mechanical drill would be carried on systematically throughout the whole school life of the child. We should sacrifice everything in Arithmetic for accuracy. If we thus modified our examination we could demand a higher percentage and secure a better test. I would suggest that any pupil obtaining 60 per cent. of the total number of marks should have an absolute right to promotion and any pupil obtaining from 50 to 60 per cent. of the marks be promoted, if his teacher's written record of his year's work is satisfactory.

Kindly permit me, at this point, to make a digression in order to speak of a question, I may say an evil, which I believe has arisen from the prominence given in the past to the Entrance Examination. It is frequently said that the High School is the poor man's college, but the poor man's only college is the Public School. Less than 10 per cent. of the Public School population ever attend a High School and of that number very few, indeed, are the children of poor parents, hence the urgent necessity of making our Public School education as thorough, as practical and as extended as possible.

The Entrance examination has been considered by many parents, and particularly by the boys and girls as the completion of their education. This false idea, which has been so difficult to combat, has arisen largely from the fact that all pupils have been prepared solely for this examination, although many of them never had any idea of ever attending a High School. This has been caused largely by the desire of those in authority to fill up our High Schools and thus provide material for our Universities. The University and High School men have dominated our Public School system, and even now, I maintain that the Public School teachers have not adequate representation on the Advisory Council. We should have at least seven members on the Council and our Public School trustees should have representation.

It would, also, be in the interest of the masses who never attend a High School, if our Public School course were extended, in both urban and rural schools, to include at least two years in the Fifth

Class, with Continuation Classes for more advanced work in rural centres. If we had ten grades in our schools instead of eight, as at present, we could give our boys and girls such a thorough training in Writing, Spelling, Composition, Practical Arithmetic and Business Forms, that they would be prepared to take any place in the world with credit to themselves and honor to their country. It would not then be necessary to have so many Business Colleges to complete the work which should be done in the Public School. Only those pupils who purpose attending the High School should be required to try the Entrance examination. In the past we have worked too exclusively in preparing pupils for a professional life instead of preparing them for business and industrial pursuits.

The Entrance examination as a qualifying examination for entrance to the High School is very necessary. Without it pupils totally unfit would be forced upon our High Schools to be drags on the progress of competent scholars. Besides, the written test used judiciously and properly conditioned is an important incentive to study. Without it the energy of the pupil is relaxed, and the appeal of the teacher to the moral sense fails to produce the desired result. It is a most valuable auxiliary to the teacher, assisting him in securing concentration of purpose, diligence and energy in his pupils.

Reform may be beneficial, but it should be introduced in moderation, and in conclusion I would summarize what I have said by offering the following suggestions or recommendations:—

1. There should be a written examination for Entrance to our High Schools, and it should be uniform for the Province.

2. The Board of Examiners for preparing the Entrance examination papers should consist of a Public School Inspector, a High School Principal and the Principal of a Public School.

3. The pupil's yearly class record should be used as a partial basis for promotion.

4. Only those pupils who purpose attending a High School should be required to try the examination.

5. One-fourth of the examination in Arithmetic should be mechanical work based on the four fundamental rules.

6. At least one-half of the questions on the written Reading paper should be based on prescribed work.

7. As thoroughness is the prime factor in all efficient work, we should aim at greater thoroughness in essentials, in each subject of the examination.

8. Fifth classes should be established in all our Public Schools, to give a more thorough primary education, to those pupils who cannot attend a High School.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: The year now closing has been a very important one in Public School circles. The Education Act of 1906, with its advanced legislation regarding the salaries of teachers in the Rural Schools and the equipment which was demanded, has given place to the modifications of the Education Acts of 1907 and 1908, in which the Government has kept in view its purpose to raise the standing of the teacher and increase his remuneration.

Instead of compelling sections to pay the teacher, according to the assessment of the sections, the general township grant has been increased, and the government grant has been almost doubled, and the manner of apportionment changed. Instead of taking the attendance only into consideration, the grant is now apportioned according to the equipment of the school, the condition of the building and grounds, the certificate of the teacher, the length of time he has been retained in the section, and the salary paid. All these features make for progress, and the original purpose will be steadily attained.

The Advisory Council has had another year of opportunity; but so far as the general public, or the teaching profession, is concerned, we have not heard much of it. Secrecy has always surrounded the meetings of the British Cabinet, but we cannot see many reasons for making the meetings of this Council so secret. Such secrecy is not in the interest of Education. The standing of its members is a guarantee of worthiness, but not enough to satisfy us. If we knew what questions were under consideration, or the results of their deliberations, we would have something on which to place our confidence—or I would say to replace or displace our confidence. As it is, the members of the Council have a cloak for even the most masterly inactivity.

One of the incidents of the year has been the publication of the famous Ellis' letters and the apparent apathy of the members of our profession. When questions of such importance are before the public, the teachers should demonstrate their claim to be considered leaders of thought, and moulders of public opinion. True, the majority of our members are young and immature; but surely there are enough of the older members who can take up the discussion and place educational problems in such a light as to inform the public, and gain the confidence and support of the great body of the people. That is what we want, and only two things can keep us from it—wrong object, or lack of skill in presenting our case.

Under Responsible Government such as we enjoy, public opinion is paramount; and though we may sometimes feel that things are out of joint when we see the apathy of many regarding the great moral questions of the day, yet the great heart of the people beats true to the knowledge it has. But there is the rub. With all the means which people have of informing themselves, we find so much ignorance. Even a large percentage of those who have the franchise do not know how many votes they may cast. To become convinced of this, it is only necessary to be a scrutineer at an election—men voting for one person for the Board of Education when they may vote for six, and at least one-quarter of them handing back a blank ballot.

This being the condition how can we expect advance legislation? Our resolutions may be supported before the Minister of Education by an array of arguments so numerous and urged so eloquently that he is thoroughly convinced of their wisdom and be desirous of introducing the suggested reforms, yet if he is not supported by public opinion and by the representatives of the people in Parliament, the Minister of the Crown is powerless to secure the necessary legislation. Thus the opinion of the people must be influenced (1) by individual conversation, (2) by speaking at public gatherings, and (3) by using the public press.

To be able to do our share in this work it is first necessary to inform ourselves. How many of us can, on a moment's notice, stand before this sympathetic audience and present the case for any one of our Resolutions of 1907? We need information, and we need to have that information arranged logically. This will require effort, but if we are worthy the name of teacher we will make the effort—we will measure up to our responsibilities. Move-

ment is not progress. Dead fish can pass down the stream, but live fish can breast the current and even scale the falls, though the hours, and even days, of effort are shown by the many scars. Private consideration alone will not inform you sufficiently. You need committee work where those who are in perfect accord as to purpose can discuss ways and means, and formulate a policy.

There should be a space in every newspaper for the discussion of educational work. Look at the pages given to sport, to coarse pictures, to columns of scandal. One half of the people read nothing else in the paper, and how small a percentage of the others read the editorials! How can we arouse the newspaper men to be willing to publish a communication on one of the educational topics of the day? We might take a month for the discussion of one of our resolutions in one of the papers and have another resolution being discussed in another paper, the work in each case being in the hands of a committee.

If such a favor is granted now, it is a great personal obligation. But if we know that each day, or each Wednesday, or each Saturday, there would be a column on our work, would the people not get to look for it? Would it not pay in the long run? I know that my letters were read by the number of persons who spoke to me of them, and the number of letters I received, approving of my views.

It was with this object in view that your executive prepared a circular letter urging the necessity of co-operation to secure reforms. The article appeared in the *Canadian Teacher*, which reaches ten thousand teachers, many of whom are in Ontario. Each teacher was asked to select one of the Resolutions—any one he was in favor of—to give definite systematic thought to it during the spare moments for one week—to jot down any point in its favor which might occur to him, or any objection which might be urged against its adoption—to arrange these points in the order considered best and forward them to the Secretary of the Public School Department of the Ontario Education Association. The work of all the correspondents was to be unified, and material prepared for a campaign to educate the people, to acquaint them with certain disabilities which exist in connection with the teachers' work and gain their support in the struggle to secure the necessary legislation.

Was that an unreasonable amount of work? It was certainly piling it up on the secretary. The pack mule would not be in it with the load which would fall to his share. Now, for the result. One single, solitary teacher was aroused to action. I was thankful for one letter. I knew my effort was not in vain. What did it say? I shall quote: "Dear Sir, I select Resolution 12—That the Holidays in Rural Schools should correspond with those in Urban Schools." I am pleased to say the points offered were well taken, logically arranged and eloquently presented. But the incident is suggestive. Where were you when this opportunity presented itself?

Encouraged in this attempt, the Executive conceived of the plan of securing a committee of seventeen in each inspectorate—one for each resolution. A circular was prepared, appeared in the *Canadian Teacher*, and was then printed in tract form. The co-operation of the President and the Secretary of each local association was asked for, and a package containing seventeen marked copies of the resolutions, seventeen tracts regarding co-operation to secure reforms and copies of the article proposing the work. Many of the Secretaries went to work—there is a lot of fine fellows among them—both men and women—and soon the letters were coming in saying the work had been apportioned and the reports would be forwarded as soon as received. From time to time a few papers would be sent in with expressions of disappointment at not being able to send more. Still, this was a beginning, and the policy will be continued if your secretary has anything to do with the decision.

In this connection I wish to thank the *Canadian Teacher* for its kindness in placing, at our disposal as much space in each issue as we cared to use. I would like to have an article in each issue. We may make a great effort to conduct such a corner.

The calls upon your secretary have been many and urgent. The preparation of the minutes for the report of the Proceedings was the first care, and we hope they appear in a creditable form. Besides the ordinary record of work we included the seventeen Résolutions passed by this Department, a copy of the letter which we sent to the Minister of Education with the Resolutions, the reports of the Public School Speller Committee of the Legislation Committee, and of the Secretary of this Department. Each of these contain food for thought and suggestion of action.

The Resolutions of this Department appeared in the *Canadian Teacher* and then 7,000 copies were struck off. Packages of these were forwarded to all the secretaries of local Institutes, of which we had a record, and it is most gratifying to note the increased attention which is being given to them. The Resolution Committees are being placed on the programmes, and teachers are beginning to realize what an important factor they may become in the educational battle. Let these be used to their fullest. Let each teacher feel a personal responsibility and respond to that feeling. When we have the co-operation of all the teachers we will have an influence which will be recognized and respected. Till then —.

Copies of the Resolutions were sent to the Public School Representatives on the Advisory Council, and also to the members of the Ontario Legislature. Accompanying the latter we sent a circular letter calling attention to the fact that these resolutions were the work of no more theorists, and asking for the privilege of discussing with them—personally or by letter—any or all of our resolutions. We hope during the coming year to make greater use of these two means of urging our resolutions. One feature proposed by the Minister of Education was to allow the members of your Legislation Committee the privilege of discussing certain questions before the Committee of the House. This suggests a most important line of possible action.

One of the lines of action initiated by your Executive this year was the publication of a series of educational tracts to carry on our work of enlightenment. Copies of all these are before me. they are tastefully prepared, of uniform size and appearance, and contain matter which is worthy of consideration. These articles appeared in the *Canadian Teacher* before they were issued in tract form. How large a part they will play in our work remains to be seen. You should take a set with you to master the thought and carry out their injunctions. If you are an officer of your local association do not ignore them.

The series is composed of (1) a letter to the secretaries of local associations asking for their co-operation with the Secretary of the central association, (2) the Resolutions of 1907, (3) the letter sent to the Minister of Education with the resolutions of 1907, (4) the tract calling for a committee of seventeen in each local asso-

ciation, (5) the tract urging co-operation to secure reforms, (6) the tract asking for the financial support of the local associations.

In response to this last tract and the many personal letters which the Secretary wrote, we have a most gratifying report to make. The largest number of associations yet on record sent a donation to this Department. Two apologized for not sending their contributions last year and sent the double amount, two sent three dollars, and two, Toronto and Oxford, sent five dollars, the total amount received being \$40. But, all told, only fourteen out of seventy-eight associations contributed. Should not every association take part? I would like the request to take the form of a resolution this year and be sent out in that prominent way. We cannot carry on this work without money, and we cannot expect the secretary "to work for the joy of doing," as Kipling says we shall in the eons to come.

Another feature of our work is the issuing of circular letters. We have at our disposal the means of striking off a number of letters on any topic. Copies of those we have sent out are before me. Some of them you have received, others of them you are interested in. Reports of the results of these letters will be presented to you. They refer to:

- (1) The Resolutions passed in the local associations.
- (2) The compulsory attendance acts in existence.
- (3) The salaries paid in the large cities of Canada and United States.
- (4) The opinions of Educationists on the Entrance.
- (5) The comparison of the work of Parts I. and II.
- (6) The importance of attendance at this Association.

The preparation of these letters, the mailing of them, and the arranging and tabulating of the replies have cost much work, but we think the effort will pay.

From time to time I have placed the interests of this Department before the members of our profession through the columns of the *Canadian Teacher* and the public press. I hope the views presented met your approval. I think there should be a Public School Department to every great newspaper in which all questions of educational interest could be presented. Questions of such vast importance as the welfare of the rising generation, and their teachers should have that much recognition on the part of

the public, and that much effort on the part of the educators. A little more slumber, a little more sleep, a little more folding of arms to rest is, I fear, characteristic of some of our number. I try to crowd that out of my life. The morning I wrote this report I rose at three, and in the silence of the darkness thought of your work. And I assure you it was no uncommon occurrence.

I present you with a report of the salaries paid in many of the great Canadian and American cities. I hope to take up the preparation of a directory of the Urban Schools of our province—villages, towns and cities—showing the name of the principal, the name of the schools where there is more than one, the number of rooms, and the salaries paid. To include the Rural Schools would be a task too great to attempt the first year, but it will come in the near future. This will be of wonderful assistance to advance the salaries. When we know what others are getting and doing we will strive to excel. It will be an influence similar to that exerted by the exhibits of products at the fall fairs.

I thank you for the honor you have conferred upon me by electing me to the position of Secretary of this Department by acclamation, an honor, I believe, not conferred on any one before, and certainly not for a fourth term. I have striven to guard your interests and show myself worthy of your confidence. This has not been done without the expenditure of time and effort, as the mass of correspondence I present to you will show. I am pleased to say the correspondence between the various local secretaries and myself is assuming the condition, of personal friends exchanging ideas, and many persons throughout the province know where to ask for information.

I wish to acknowledge the kindness and prompt co-operation and support I have had from the other members of your executive, and particularly the president, who has been with me in every effort. There has not been one ruffle to mar the unanimity of our committee in all its work. Such conditions make for progress.

Yours very sincerely,

CHAS. G. FRASER.

RESOLUTIONS, 1908.

For the consideration of the Honourable the Minister of Education, his Department, and the Teachers of the Province; and for discussion at the County Teachers' Association.

Let each association appoint a committee to report upon them, and send the report and the result of the discussion to the Secretary of the Public School Department as suggested in Resolution number 24.

CHAS. G. FRASER,
10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto.

A NEW CURRICULUM.

1. That the work in each of the ten grades of the Public Schools be clearly defined; and that text-books should then be prepared, or selected, on the basis of the work as thus defined, not in the opposite order.

NEW TEXT-BOOKS.

2. That when the Minister of Education contemplates the authorization of a text-book on any subject, he should give one year's notice of his intention thereof, that those, who wish, may submit a book—in type-written form if necessary; and that Public School teachers be consulted in the preparation and selection of all Public School texts.

THE NEW READERS.

3.—(a) That the new series of Readers for Ontario should consist of eight books—one book for each grade—each containing matter sufficient for one year.

(b) That in the matter of word recognition, the books be based on a logical use of phonics; and being for the purpose of teaching reading, the matter should be so arranged as to provide for a proper development of, and practice in, pronunciation, articulation, voice training, and vocal expression.

(c) That, keeping in view the principles laid down in clause *b* the matter of the readers be selected in accordance with the spirit of civilization—adjusting the child to his world of to-day, at each stage of his evolution—his progress towards the culture of the race—giving due prominence to both nature and human nature, including the ideals and virtues of humanity, not in a moralizing manner, but in story and incident; that each selection should be a literary whole, such as the child of the grade can appreciate, not forgetting that often the heart can apprehend what the mind cannot explain; and that each reader of the series bear the impress of our national spirit.

(d) That the paper, printing, binding and illustrations be of superior quality, briefly, “art-literature” readers, containing many reproductions of the masterpieces.

A NEW SPELLER.

4. That the present Practical Speller on account of its method of arrangement and the large number of unfamiliar words selected—words that are seldom used—is unsuited to the use of Public Schools, and that it should be replaced by a more suitable text having the following features:

(a) The including of lists of words in ordinary use and those used in the teaching of the work of the present Public School curriculum; and the omission of all words that are seldom used or which are of a highly technical nature.

(b) The including of words of similar meaning, and those of similar sound which are in common use and giving the peculiar force, or meaning, of each.

(c) The placing of the lists of “Difficult Words for Review” at the end of the book.

(d) The arranging of the words of each group in three columns according to their difficulty so that the work can easily be assigned to each class, giving each the attainable and the reasonable without the teacher having to choose the words, and the pupils to mark them, as is necessary with the arrangement of the present book.

(e) The including of the prefixes, affixes and roots of the present work.

(f) Ten or twelve blank pages at the end of the book for pupils' mistakes.

5. That one or more text-books in Composition be adopted, as well as a separate text-book in Grammar.

PART I.—PUBLIC SCHOOL LEAVING EXAMINATION.

6.—(a) That a Provincial Examination be held at the end of the Eighth Grade of the Public School Course and students who pass this Examination shall be entitled to attend any High School, Collegiate Institute or Continuation School in the Province.

(b)—(1) That papers be set on the following subjects of the course—Reading, Writing, Spelling, Arithmetic, Grammar, Composition, Literature and Geography;

(2) That the result of this examination be considered in connection with the Teacher's estimate of the standing of the pupil in each subject;

(3) That the mark required for passing be 40% on each subject and 60% on the total;

(4) That one-half of the marks in Literature be assigned on prescribed work and at least one-fourth of the marks in Arithmetic be on mechanical work on the four simple rules.

(c) That a detailed curriculum of the work in these subjects be drawn up for the Province, and that local authorities be allowed the privilege of extending this course by including certain optional subjects in accordance with a curriculum which shall be supplied.

(d) That the papers for this examination be set by a Provincial Board of Examiners appointed by the Education Department and consisting of three members—one representative from the Public Schools who is directly associated with the work of the Eighth Grade, but not teaching that work, one representative from the High Schools, and one Public School Inspector. These shall meet and consult together on the papers, and be individually, and collectively, responsible for each and every paper set.

(e) That there be a Local Board of Examiners for each inspectorate, to carry out the work of the Examination. It shall be composed of representatives of the three educational interests connected with such work but Public School representatives shall predominate.

(f) That these Local Boards of Examiners be not invested with such unlimited powers as the Local Entrance Boards at present have, but that all material deviations from this plan receive the sanction of the Education Department.

7. That Principals of Continuation Schools shall be members of the Entrance Board.

TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

8. That no certificate to teach, except as an assistant, be granted to any person under 21 years of age.

9. That the matter of certificate should not be the only point to be considered in deciding what teachers shall be qualified to take the position of teacher or principal, of any Public School.

10. That the requirements for a Public School Inspector's certificate shall be:—

(a) The holding of a first-class Professional Certificate of qualification;

(b) An experience of ten years' successful teaching in Public Schools, covering all grades of Public School work;

(c) The passing of a pedagogical examination, controlled by the Department of Education, or the securing of a Degree in Pedagogy in any recognized Canadian University.

THE ADVISORY COUNCIL.

11. That the number of Public School Representatives on the Advisory Council be increased from four to seven, and that the Province be divided into seven electoral districts, each of which shall elect one representative to the Council.

12. That members of the Advisory Council should have the power to introduce the discussion of *any* educational question.

A PROVINCIAL TEACHERS' DIRECTORY.

13. That the Minister of Education be asked to publish a Handbook, or Directory, of the graded schools of the Province, showing the names of the schools, the number of rooms in each, the name

of the principal and the salaries paid to him and his staff. The matter for this, the Secretary of this Department will submit to him.

PUBLIC SCHOOL WORK.

14. That the Kindergarten work should be a part of the Public School course in every school where practicable, and to this end special inducements should be offered by the Education Department by way of grants, (1) on the initial cost of establishment, and (2) on maintenance.

15. That some method of applying the principles of the Kindergarten to every primary department of the Public Schools should be devised.

16. That where Manual Training and Domestic Science are introduced into a school, attendance at these classes shall be made compulsory.

17. That the interests of Education in the Rural Schools would be best served by having Boards of Five Trustees to manage the school affairs of each Township.

18. That the holidays in Rural Schools should correspond with those in Urban Schools.

19. That section 91 of the 1904 Regulations be so amended as not to require the holding of a meeting of the teachers' institute on a Saturday.

20. That the Education Department be requested to make the School Year end on the 30th June and to have the annual reports of the pupils' attendance made out accordingly.

21. That a Special Committee consisting of Messrs. Ward, Fraser, Cole, Kelly, and McJanet, be appointed to consider the question of a compulsory Attendance Act, and with power to take action.

22. That the Government be asked to provide and support a system of superannuation for the Teachers of the Province.

THE LOCAL ASSOCIATIONS.

23. That we thank the Local Associations which, in the past have contributed to the funds of this Department of the O.E.A. to carry on the campaign inaugurated, and request that each Asso-

ciation in the Province be urged to contribute two dollars this year.

24. That each and every Teachers' Association in the Province—both County Institutes and Local Associations—be asked to appoint a committee to consider each of the resolutions of this Department and prepare arguments in favor of each resolution, and also the objections which would be raised against each; that these be forwarded, without delay, to the Secretary of this Department that he may unify them and submit the arguments to the Minister of Education as requested by him.

25. That the Executive of this Department be empowered to issue a report on the schedule of salaries in the important Canadian and American centres, and that this report include the "minimum salary" legislation to date.

KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

*THE KINDERGARTEN AS AN INTEGRAL PART OF THE
PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM.*

WILLIAM SCOTT, B.A., TORONTO.

Miss President and Ladies: When your Secretary wrote to me asking me to speak to this Department on this occasion, she suggested two subjects, viz., "The Kindergarten an an integral part of the Public School System," and "The Kindergarten as an expression of the new educational thought." As I had already dealt with one phase of Kindergarten work in a paper before this Department at the meeting in 1901, I have selected the subject which seems to me farthest removed from the one I then dealt with, viz., "What Child Study has done for the Teaching World," on which to make a few remarks. An investigation of the place of the Kindergarten in elementary education is at this time quite pertinent since for various reasons there are questionings among school boards and others as to the utility of the expenditure which its support involves.

For a moment let us consider the purpose of education. This is to meet the natural inclinations of a child's mind and through these inclinations to offer opportunities and aid for the proper cultivation and growth of body and mind. The natural inclinations of a healthy mind are to be stimulated. The child is to be helped to use its senses, to exercise its self-activity and to become habituated to putting forth continuous effort. It is now recognized that there is no education, that there can be no real education, where there is no activity on the part of the child; that where there is mere passivity, the child is not being educated; that the business of teacher and parent is to stimulate and to put the child in congenial circumstances where his activity may find self-expression. To this end schools are made available for children of all classes so that young people may grow up with their faculties well developed, fitting them to become useful men and women in their future business and social life.

When it is remembered that a child is an organism whose development is subject to organic laws and that this child must be considered both as an individual and as a member of society and that education must aim at the development of a complete organism both in its individual and social capacities, it will be readily seen why there must be no break in the continuity of the development, but progress must be steady and continuous, for it is self-evident that all breaks, all intermissions, all severing contrasts, are injurious, nay, fatal to proper development.

Thus the Kindergarten prepares the way for subsequent education and development by putting the child in the way of teaching himself, by stimulating him to continue to discover truths for himself, and by increasing the desire to be independent as well as giving him the power to do for himself. Since the end of all true teaching is to increase the power of the pupil to manage for himself, not to make a storehouse of his mind, hence it is well for a child to come within influences which form the desire of being independent at an early age and which fit him to rely on his own efforts. Thus the proper training of a child requires that he should early be required to rely upon his own endeavors and should continue this during his career at both Public and High Schools. In general, many teachers in graded schools and even in some Kindergartens, do not realize the supreme importance of stimulus to work as compared with ability to know—the knowing in many cases consisting in a graphophone-like repetition of something said or a poor imitation of something done. These have forgotten, if they ever knew, that education results from attempting to do something that resists one's powers; from coming into contact with difficulties that require all one's present skill, and more, to overcome; from attempting to do rather than from mere acquisition; from making efforts rather than from achieving successes.

If this introductory statement of the meaning and means of education is admitted, the reasons for my belief that the Kindergarten should form an integral part of a graded school system will be obvious.

The first reason then arises from the necessities of the child's development. There comes a time in the life of every child when it passes from the nurture stage of the home and begins to long for outdoor life and further acquaintance with the world beyond

the family circle. He begins to demand the society of others of his own age beyond the family. He desires to play with others and thus gains his own individuality. His own nature—his subjective nature—becomes active and he begins to have his likes and dislikes. Through caprice and arbitrariness he learns that he has a will of his own, that is independent of the direction of his elders and that he can use to determine what he will do. At this stage the Kindergarten comes to solve many of the problems of child development. The child now needs the gentleness of nurture and the rational order of the school. Thus the due admixture of these two advances the development of the child without the sudden transition from the home to the school as formerly and which often proved so unequal to the task that the child refused to attend.

It is about the age of three that the child emerges from the narrow family life and begins to hunger for companionships. The tendency towards social intercourse grows during the fourth, fifth and sixth years. Now he needs such direction as will form in him habits of regularity, punctuality, cleanliness, self-control, and politeness—without which, the child, from his street associates is rough, often ungovernable and quite averse to the restraints of the Primary School. Thus by means of the Kindergarten, the transition from the home to the school is bridged over much to the comfort and well being of the child. But the Kindergarten does more than this, for it is the business of the school work to elevate the individual into the species, to make of him a social being. Now, while the school cannot help from doing this, it is often too rigid, too unsympathetic, and the child is expected to throw off the freedom of the home at once and enter on the conventionalities of the class, which is a small type of the world. The Kindergarten takes the little ones in their tenderest years and by means of the games, plays and occupations, places within their comprehension, without undue or forced effort, what is going on in the great world around them. It leads them by these means from feeling to thinking and from thought to action. Hence the Kindergarten is most needed by two classes, those who have become suddenly rich and the very poor. The children of the former class are usually entrusted to half-educated governesses or illiterate servants destitute of will power. They are often precocious, restless and troublesome, inheriting, as they do, the

great directive power of their parents; consequently they are difficult to manage. They become wilful and self-indulgent and, when old enough to go to school, they are beyond cure. They cannot now submit themselves to the discipline required in the school. They are said to be unmanageable, incorrigible, and are sent home. At eighteen or twenty, they develop a love of sport as gambling, horse racing, and thus destroy themselves by fast living. The Kindergarten furnishes proper activity for these precocious children and trains them gently into self-controlled, normal pupils.

The very poor are cribbed, cabined, and confined. Having no recreation grounds except the streets, these now form those evil associations and are initiated into those evil practices, which ever afterwards it is the aim of society to correct. Living, as they do, surrounded by vice and crime, they become the jackals of society. Send them to the Kindergarten where they will learn, among the very first things, self-respect; and the birth of self-respect is the dawn of a new order of things in these beings. Is it not a wise and economical investment to provide the wherewithal of enabling the child to make the transition from the home to the school without this handicap? Surely an ounce of prevention is, in this case, worth tons of cure, especially so, since cures are so rare, when once vicious habits have been formed.

Again, why did Froebel think of the Kindergarten? We are told that his long experience as a teacher of children led him to the conclusion that children entered the Primary School with their powers of mind and body either undeveloped or misdeveloped. Hence they were quite incapable of doing the work they should be doing at five or six. This is equally true to-day. The most cursory consideration will drive one to the conclusion that something is necessary to train a child who begins to possess language, who begins to see ideals and does its best to realize them. A moment's thought will convince such that children are often checked in their proper development by having no proper objects on which to exercise their advancing fancy. More is needed than the toys and blocks which are often provided at home before the child begins to preceive the possibilities of new things by being skillfully set to work. Thus the occupations of the Kindergarten make the child a planning, executive agent, almost from the first. Brain cells that might never be brought into action,

and which otherwise would lie dormant are thus stimulated and the child becomes acquainted with the fundamental relations of geometric forms and sees with clearness how to plan to realize his ideals.

Then the plays and games introduce him in a proper way to the world of humanity; cause him to realize himself in his own activities, not by working by himself, but by coming into contact with others and, hence, he rises from the selfish, individual person to the social, unselfish worker for the general welfare of all.

While working with the gifts and at the occupations, he becomes sure of the fact that he can plan and execute; but, when he comes to the games, in addition to these, he recognizes that there are others to be considered, so his social side is trained and gradually there dawns upon him the higher ideal self that is to be realized in taking part with others, in helping others to reach some common end. At the Kindergarten these conceptions come to him under proper auspices, surrounded by proper conditions. How different it is in many homes or on the street? These two phases of development take place in all children. When the conditions are wrong, the results are often lamentable. In many cases, the child never learns to realize his true possibilities, hence he is never what he should be. In others the development is so vicious that society is ever after engaged in the work of reforming what should have been made straight from the first. In this case, as in others, one right former is worth a thousand reformers. Thus the greatest thing in the Kindergarten is the community life. The child cannot have this at home, for he has nothing to do for others. True education means working with and for others. To develop him in the best and highest way, the child must be set to do something for others. This is where the Kindergarten is superior to either the home or the Primary School. The child becomes unselfish in his endeavor to aid others, before he is tied down by his own selfish desires. The ideal school is the ideal community. Gaining knowledge, merely is not education; but that one may live in and put his life into the community in which he lives, is true education. Surely, no other argument is needed to prove that the Kindergarten ought to have a place in all well considered systems of education.

The pantomime used in connection with the songs and games causes the child to reproduce in imagination the world of

humanity. He realizes in some kind of way, feeble it may be, but yet he realizes the motive which influences men. He puts himself in the place of the adult and thus attains a consciousness of something higher than he is now and to which he must aspire. He thus learns the conventional forms of politeness, the fashion he must follow. He realizes that there being others, he must no longer be the selfish overbearing tyrant that he may have been in the home; thus he acquires a conscience, a corporate conscience—a conscience that demands unconditional obedience—that requires the sacrifice of much that was formerly selfish. In this symbolic manner the child ascends from the selfish animal to the spiritual being who sees law and order not only in things about him, but also in the higher things of life. Thus the plays and games, through the laws of self-activity, make the child realize much of the philosophy of life. Children become wise without being conceited. They are thus in a far better position to go to school and enter upon duties which their development has fitted them for, than if they had had no such training, or if they had been led astray by their poor home or street surroundings.

Again, the child's emotional nature is early stirred, but he is not clear either in his intellect or in his will. One side of his feelings is in the direction of his intellect, and the other in the direction of his will. The former is feeling in the form of sense-perception; the latter is in that of desires, passions, and emotions. The normal child translates his sensations into a knowledge of things and events and thus begins the evolution of his intellect. He guides his desires into action and begins the evolution of his moral nature. But some children are far from normal. They are slow to waken up. In fact if too long delayed, they never waken up. Hence the necessity for schools for dullards and others. The mind must in some way be aroused to activity. There is no influence equal to the Kindergarten for this purpose. The child, like the young plant, is placed in congenial conditions, and like it, asks for nothing more to perform his destined work, viz., "to grow." Thus, as Dr. Harris says, "The Kindergarten, as it came from the hands of Froebel, is the most valuable educational method yet devised for giving the child the first impulse towards clearness of thinking and willing."

Again, there are three well defined stages of child development, the Play stage, the Constructive stage, and the Learning stage.

Now, the Kindergarten receives the child at the climax of the first stage, when it plays for the mere sake of self-expression. This play becomes the instrument through which it conquers the external world, and, the spontaneous self-incitement of the soul to self-mastery. Children of all nations instinctively reproduce the domestic, social, industrial and religious life into which they were born. Now, the Kindergarten uses these instinctive efforts at digging, sewing, building, dancing, singing, drawing, etc., and through the games and occupations reveals to the children their own selfhood, and thus enables them to become cognizant of the difference between what they are and what they ought to be. For note the vast difference between the free, untrammelled play of the home and the street and that of the Kindergarten. In the one there is only the exercise of their powers according to their own caprice, according to their own predilections, according to their own originality. There will be, there can be, hence, no gradual revelation to the child of his own regulated self in his games. All children play, just as all plants grow, but it requires the direction of a conscious superior mind, so to guide the plays as to enable the child little by little to become a self-guiding, self-regulating free agent. Thus the play and the occupations pass gradually into conscious work in the case of the Kindergarten, but into lawlessness in the case of the child whose playground is the street alone, and whose instructors are those a little older than himself. This is to make anarchists of children. Now is the time to direct his games, control his caprices, prune his desires, so that the child comes to feel that he must adapt himself to his little world. Thus it becomes an easy matter to pass from the Kindergarten to the school. By the time he is ready for school he has so mastered himself, that conscious work becomes a pleasure and a duty.

Again, when we remember that the child is not an adult in small, but a distinct type and as such needs to be trained, otherwise the adult will never be evolved as perfect as he should be, we see the necessity of having a place and a means of imparting a proper training to the child. The mistakes par excellence of teachers and parents is in regarding the child as a little man or woman. Just as well suppose that the dormant chrysalis is like the gaudy butterfly. Here we wonder not only at the changed appearance, but also at the changed mode of living, of moving, and of having its being. Could we see the child as clearly as we

discern the chrysalis, we would as easily discern that there is as great a difference between the child and the adult as between the chrysalis and the full grown insect.

Now, as a neglect of any stage of development of the child hinders the perfectness of all future development, it is obvious, that this must be a sufficient reason for the child being educated at that stage as well as possible. The child requires as complete and perfect development during the play and symbolic stage as afterwards, otherwise there will always be an awkward break in the subsequent evolution of his self-hood. Then, when it is considered that any complete system of education must be founded upon the needs of the child and not upon the convenience of the public or upon what is even a more powerful deterrent, tradition, it is obvious, that the Kindergarten should have a place in the Public School curriculum.

Having shown that the Kindergarten is necessary for the proper development of the child, it becomes clear that it forms the best introduction to industrial training. The occupations teach the children to love work, order and neatness; to respect things that are beautiful; to handle things with care and deftness and delicacy. This work cures clumsiness. At a time when he is most susceptible, the child is trained to be careful of property and to respect the rights of others—a training in things which it is difficult for the Primary School to give, and without which, the average child will always be awkward, an awkwardness, too, which is often destructive in its clumsiness in after life, resulting in chipped and broken dishes, mutilated works of art, smudged upholstering, destroyed apparatus. The panacea for the almost universal awkwardness and clumsiness of the children of the laboring and poorer classes, is a two or three years' course in a good Kindergarten. This would prevent much future destruction of things beautiful and valuable. Again, if the school is to prepare a person to enter upon some art or trade, the foundation must be laid in the Kindergarten, for the training of the muscles. As age advances, it becomes more and more difficult to acquire new phases of manual dexterity. Hence, if special skill is required in manipulation, the requisite training must be begun in early youth. There is no danger of this skill being lost, for when growth is begun, this is continued by reason of the pleasure that is derived from using the part that has been trained. Thus it is that muscles

do not forget. The trained muscle demands exercise just as the stomach demands food. This exercise is furnished in many ways when we are quite unconscious of it.

Surely, on the ground that grace and ease of movement and deftness of touch would take the place of awkwardness, and thus add much to the value of those who have to labor with their hands, this is reason sufficient for giving that training which can be given in a few months at a time when every muscle and nerve is in a plastic condition, and which is so difficult to be given a few years later. Although at the time, the expense may appear large, yet it will be repaid again and again in increased power and efficiency, and consequently in increased usefulness and happiness, in adult years.

Having shown that the Kindergarten is necessary for the harmonious development of the child itself and also for its future needs in the manual arts, let me say a few words regarding its spread.

The Kindergarten has been sufficiently long before the public for it to be estimated at its true worth. People are willing to make experiments, even expensive experiments, but they are not

SPREAD OF KINDERGARTENS.

Place.	When opened.	1896	1900	1902	1903	1904	1905
St. Louis	1873	133	141
Boston	1887-14	64	78	89	94	99	107
Philadelphia	1887	122	142	142	143	143	217
New York	1893	22	135	404	449	491	549
Chicago	53	89	177	197	200	215
Detroit	2	23	41	42	47	51
Buffalo	14	18	22	23	23
Los Angeles	32	40	38	41	47	47

willing to support an expensive luxury for any length of time, unless some substantial benefit accrues from it. Hence the spread of the Kindergarten in all lands, progressive so far as education is concerned, is a real argument as to its necessity.

In the United States in 1873, when statistics of the Kindergarten were first collected by the Bureau of Education, there were 42 Kindergartens, public and private; in 1880 there were 232; in 1887, 544; in 1892, 1,311; in 1898, 2,884; and in 1902, 4,781.

More remarkable, if possible, has been their increase in the great centres of population. In Sept., 1873, the first public Kindergarten was opened in S. Louis, and in 1905 there were 141.

In 1882, after a careful investigation of their effect upon the St. Louis schools, Milwaukee established public Kindergartens. Now there are 51 public Kindergartens, and the State of Wisconsin is a stronghold of Kindergartens.

Philadelphia made a careful investigation and introduced the Kindergarten in 1887. Now there are 217 Public Kindergartens and a continual request for others to be established.

New York established its first Public Kindergarten in 1893; in 1896 there were 22 and to-day there are 549.

In 1887, after considering the effects of the Kindergarten upon the pupils that entered the Public Schools, Boston decided to adopt the fourteen private Kindergartens established by Mrs. Shaw and make them an integral part of its school system. In 1896 these had increased to 64 and in 1905 to 107. Examples similar to these can be multiplied indefinitely.

In Europe the Kindergarten has made equally great progress. It is an integral part of most of the national systems of education. Since 1860, when the prohibition of Kindergartens was revoked by Prussia, almost every town has its Kindergartens; and in all the large centres of population of Germany, institutes for preparing Kindergarteners have been established. Similar remarks are true of France, Austria, Holland, Belgium, Great Britain, Scandinavia, Italy, etc.

After all these years and under such varied circumstances, is it not reasonable to infer that the Kindergarten is a real necessity for the better development of the child? Is it reasonable to suppose the Kindergarten is supported by these places as an expensive fad or to humor the passing whim of some superintendent or School Board? During the times of financial storm and stress, through which these cities and countries have passed since their establishment, would not this expensive part of their Public School system have been cut off, unless it was felt that ample value was received for the outlay? This, however, is the fact, that wherever the Kindergarten has been conducted on true Froebelian principles, it has remained. On the contrary, where it has fallen into the hands of ignorant, presumptuous advocates, it has been closed,

to be, however, re-opened under more favorable auspices. As well found an argument against Public Schools, because some of these were failures owing to their being taught by incompetents, whose only qualifications lay in their uselessness for any other occupation.

May it not be laid down as a sound argument that success of long enough duration not to be something temporary, but to have survived the enthusiasm of its introduction, shows that sound principles underlie the thing, whatever it may be? Applying this argument to the question under discussion, it is certain that wherever the Kindergarten has been introduced and conducted as a subordinate element of a larger, broader, and fuller system of training, it has proved itself successful and has greatly benefited the schools with which it came into contact. On the contrary where it has been used and taught as a thing by itself, a kind of cult, an exclusive thing, too sacred to admit of the laying on of profane hands to modify or adjust it to the average conditions of the Public Schools, it has proved a failure, *i.e.*, after a trial it was discontinued. The fault lay not in the Kindergarten per se, but in the ignorance and self-conceit of its teachers. In this respect the Kindergarten has suffered more from its ignorant and injudicious friends than from its avowed enemies.

After having had many classes pass through their hands, it is the experience of almost all teachers of primary classes, that where their pupils come to them from a well conducted Kindergarten, not from a mechanical one, that they are better able to go on with their work. I say almost all primary teachers, for here and there you will still meet with those who were brought up in the hear-a-pin-drop school. These do not understand the genius of development through doing. They think the Kindergarten a nuisance. The pupils are troublesome. They wish to do things—they prefer activity to passivity. They would rather be planning and executing things of their own determining than meekly following the directions of their teacher. These primary teachers look upon the Kindergarten as a most unnecessary addition to the schools, and regard it in somewhat of the same light as a fifth wheel to a coach. But the teachers who have imbibed ideas regarding self-activity and development through exercise of function, have no doubt as to its value. Let me give one concrete example of this. I refer to the case of the St. Louis schools; some of these schools have no

Kindergartens, others have, hence a comparison can be made. In schools with Kindergartens, the children begin the work of reading, writing, etc., one year later than in schools where there is no Kindergarten. But by the time the fifth grade is reached the Kindergarten children are as far advanced as the other children; and by the time the eighth grade is finished, those with a Kindergarten training are ready to graduate nearly a year earlier than their less fortunate fellows. Other examples might be cited to prove the same thing.

This might have been foreseen, but since in education, theory and practice are, at times, at cross purposes, bear with me while for a moment I recapitulate what has been shown. The difficulties and perplexities of the Primary School arise from the fact that the child passes at once from the freedom of the home, with its unregulated duties, to the necessary restraints and the regulated work of the school. The Kindergarten makes the transition and gently transforms the home activity and spontaneity of the child into the self-directing activity of well ordered work of the primary class. Again, the fundamental idea of the Kindergarten is to develop power, not to teach the data which subsequently become knowledge. However, just as at home and on the street, although these are not places intended primarily for learning, yet the child learns much. Here he receives much insight into many social and economic conditions of life and is brought into contact with elements of knowledge which subsequent instruction in the Primary School work up and deepen into real knowledge. Then, through the occupations, the hand becomes deft, and obedient to the will of the child, hence, the handling of the pen and pencil becomes easier; the play with the building and laying gifts develops ideas of number and relation, which are the real ground work of Arithmetic. The songs with their symbolism enrich the vocabulary and add much to the literary elements of his language, making all future work in language more intelligible and hence more profitable. Then the child has learned obedience, obedience to law, that obedience which is the first step in the direction of realizing individual liberty. For, where there is no law there is no liberty, paradoxical as it may seem. Perfect self-willing is perfect obedience to law; whereas, caprice and wilfulness mean disorganization and confusion. To me it seems that obedience is the very basic principle of the philosophy of Froebel, for does he

not require exact obedience to all the inflexible laws of his philosophy, the laws of rhythm, of opposites, of number, of unity, of proportion, all of which are as beautiful, and true, and tender as they are inexorable.

In this paper I have attempted to show, that, viewed solely from the child's standpoint, the Kindergarten should be an integral part of the school system. It would have been easy to adduce arguments in its favor from its influence beyond its own immediate and particular realm; to show how it has effected improvements in every grade of school work, not excepting that of the colleges and universities; how it has rejuvenated the teachers and drawn them away from the rigid attitude and excessively proper demeanor rendered necessary by the stilted and severe methods of the old time school; how it has stimulated new forms of social activity and development; how it has transformed the discipline of the school and extended its influence into the playground, the vacation school, and general society; how those institutions for the unfortunate and defective have profited by its wider outlook for the welfare of the blind, the deaf, the crippled, the convalescing. But this is unnecessary.

Now, although there are still many to be convinced of its benefits in the development of the individual, and still more who tell you that while it affects the very young, yet by ten or twelve all those who have been at a Kindergarten and all those who have not will be on an equality, permit me to suggest to the Kindergartners, that with faith in the infinite value of the human soul in all its stages of evolution, with unwearying patience born of lofty and beneficent purposes, with earnest unsparing effort springing from boundless hope, let her work and wait certain that in due time the Kindergarten will come into its own and children have possession of their inheritance.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE KINDERGARTEN TO CITIZENSHIP.

REV. T. J. THOMPSON, M.A., STRATFORD.

Even the most casual student of public affairs must observe the change rapidly taking place in our social life.

Some things once heard with the hearing of the ear, our eyes are now seeing.

We have our foreign quarter in many a staid old town, and before long it may be possible to go slumming near by our own door.

Ex-Secretary of the Treasury, Shaw, predicts an expansion of population in Western Canada larger than America has yet seen.

Already we have felt the wash of the incoming time. A heterogeneous crowd are surging Canada-ward, polyglot, unlettered and untrained in self-government. Only a Canute or a Mrs. Partington would attempt to stay its coming. It is inevitable. There is a certain flotsam or foul drift, against which a barrier should be set up, but, in the main, ours is an open shore.

“Pray God our Empire may not fail
Through craven fear of being great.”

All the same, their coming sets us an educational problem, vaster, more complex, more acute than the fathers of our Public School system ever dreamed. Then, too, besides the convenient foreigner, we must reckon with considerable changes in the social temper of our own people. Urban life is on the increase and an inseparable feature of urban life is the herding of the unfit. Their coming together makes for their deterioration.

At the opposite pole, are those eager to joint the ranks of the newly rich, at any cost. The rapid industrial development of older Canada, with its increasing wealth, or its multiplied opportunities for such increase, carries along with it certain germs of social decay which must be recognized and treated for a cure. New occasions must teach us new duties. We are, all of us, ambitious and hopeful of a citizenship, intelligent, industrious, independent, and truly social, and I am sure we are well convinced that citizenship means far more than going to the poll on election day. Nothing less will meet our view, than our whole part in society. Our ideal is that of a democracy that levels up and not down—a truly co-operative community, where each is for all, and all for each.

A democracy acquainted with what is best, and seeking to achieve that best, and seeking to achieve that best through its own productive industry. We feel something of the difficulty of the mountain track before us. We believe it demands the sym-

pathetic co-operation of all elevating forces. Pulpit, press, school, and ballot must work for the common end. It is for us to remember that *our* work as *teachers* is of fundamental importance. The intellectual and moral forces that create and train the sense of right are responsible for every step forward. These religious and educational forces in their totality are the ox-team drawing the wain up the steep slope. The state can only block the wheel at convenient intervals, to prevent its rolling back. And so it comes about, that the contribution to citizenship *we* are called on to make is of supreme importance. For that reason the life of the teacher is a very human life. It demands rich endowment in such qualities as those of courage, patience, insight, and sympathy, and among teachers, none should be more richly endowed than the kindergartner. Surely this needs no argument! The kindergartner stands nearest the home, and furthest from the barrack square. Her work should have in it most of the motherly and least of the arts of the drill serjeant. It is hers to interpret the home to the school, and the school to the home; helping each to understand the other, and thus promoting mutual encouragement and help. For the time arrives, when the home must give place to some form of preparation for the work of the school. The Kindergartner gives this preparation, furnishing companionship for social development, and linking the child's play with easy and grateful occupations under the direction of the teacher. Too young for tasks, perhaps, but not too young to look for meaning in his play; not too young to receive impressions from the symbols of life to which his attention turns under the skillful leadership of his good companion and wise friend, the teacher.

Where anything is growing, Horace Mann has said, "One former is worth a thousand reformers."

The Kindergarten has no intention of thrusting between mother and child. It is because Froebel believed in the mother that we have Kindergartens. Not every domicile is a home. In many such an abode, any hint of better things ever heard comes from outside. Thrift is not seen there, self-respect is not evident, nor innocence itself for that matter, except it may be an innocence of soap and water. To such homes the Kindergarten has a special mission.

With a Kindergartner alive to her opportunities, these children and these homes might soon acquire personal cleanliness and tidi-

ness of habit, along with new conceptions of order, thrift and self-government.

It may be, this particular phase of Kindergarten work has not been as prominently before us in Ontario, as in some other places, but it needs doing. I may be permitted to say that the Kindergarten, who is zealous for the Mothers' Meeting and tactful in her home visitation, is likely to help save the situation for the Kindergarten in Canada. There are other homes where help from the outside is needed. These are not the thriftless, but are rather the over-wrought. Busy, it may be, as the earth grub is busy, or as the moth is busy—but busy in any event so that the children are practically neglected. Particularly in need of the Kindergarten is such a child, if he have a silver spoon in his mouth. He is too often self-assertive and capricious, and surely needs to be taught self-control, industry and perseverance. The children of such homes will start in life, with some material advantages over their poorer fellows. It will mean much to start them on a wise and helpful line of life.

Permit me to say that even in such homes, a tactful Kindergarten may make an occasional visit a source of illumination; opening up to that foolish mother, or to that hard working mother, lines of thought and different ways of dealing with her children.

This interpretation of the school to the home is to be accompanied as we have suggested, by an interpretation of the home to the school. I take this to be the significance of Froebel's "Mother Play." Such a promoting of self-activity as develops the individual self. A development that is of the consciousness of myself as the *knowing subject*. The ability to relate a symbol to some concrete reality, implies this development. And while I should be loath to encourage transcendental chatter, yet it is wise to recognize the presence of the conscious self, the true individual, even at the dawn of intellectual activity in the child.

Most righteously, I believe, the Kindergarten protests against that repressive method which refuses scope to the child's soul when he is attached to a desk, and asked to employ only his eyes and ears in listening to a voice or a book. There's a better way to begin, and that way the Kindergarten has shown.

The Kindergarten, wisely administered, is fitted to develop in the child the faculty of tracing every symbol back to some concrete reality. We can hardly over-estimate the value of such an

educational beginning. Such a child is prepared for the reception of knowledge. He might prove a thorn in the side of a teacher of the Oriental type, but be sure he wants to know.

When such a child leaves the Kindergarten, would to Heaven he were met with the enquiry, "What can you learn child"? Rather than with the imperious demand to find out what his teacher can teach and prepare to curriculumate!

O! for the Kindergarten that develops the child thus, and O, for the school system whose patron is Socrates and not Procrustes!

"I never saw such tom-foolery in all my life," was the verdict of an old-timer, as he took his way out of the Kindergarten one day after a first visit. But wisdom is justified of her children. Meaningless and futile as the gifts and occupations may appear at first sight, their intelligent employment by the Kindergarten produces lasting impressions. Be happy at your work or play, is the key-note of every song. In varying tones it is repeated and insisted. Work is good, and working together is better. Love Nature—God's creatures have a right to live. It's better to co-operate than to compete. Long before such thoughts take the form of maxims they may be at work as impressions. Coming in at an early age, at a highly susceptible age they are calculated to result in good manners, good morals, and good citizenship.

The Kindergarten professes to make such impressions by an intelligent employment of Kindergarten Methods.

The quiet assurance that there is a right way and a wrong way of doing everything, the happy discovery of number and form, the benefit and necessity of mutual consideration and an imagination alert, without being fevered, are boons we might well covet for the children as they prepare to enter on the life of the school.

That the Kindergarten is conferring such boons is ungrudgingly admitted by careful students of the system at work. Educational authorities in American centres warmly commend the system both for its direct benefits to the children in the Kindergarten and for its indirect benefits in a modification of methods from the Primary department upwards.

Can we claim such efficiency for the Kindergarten as we know it at work amongst ourselves?

What reply shall we give to the question coming in different ways, but always insistent, "Is the Kindergarten worth while?" Is it not after all something arbitrary? A passing fad, a kind of

educational flourish we've attempted, but not in any true sense necessary.

It is only fair to everybody concerned to see that such questioning is no reflection on Froebelian principles. The time has gone by for such skepticism. If we refuse them a culture bed in the Kindergarten, we must at least admit there is an ever enlarging space afforded for their accommodation in the maturer stages of Educational growth.

If the approved success of the Kindergarten elsewhere is not being repeated within our borders, there must be local reasons for the partial failure. Canadian trained Kindergartners have won an honorable place abroad and rarely fail of appreciation, *when they are taken seriously*. That fact is worthy of consideration. It is also noteworthy that the Kindergarten has been taken more seriously in some other places than in Canada. Perhaps that is because of the loose and popular notion that the only field for it is to be found in centers where population is congested, and that elsewhere it is little better than a dumb show. Surely that is a misconception of the true function of the Kindergarten. A vital question for your consideration arises. To what is that misconception due? It is not to be charged altogether to the philistinism and lack of sympathy in school boards and Inspectors. After all, may it not be due in some degree to the Kindergarten itself as it has been developed here.

Due, that is to the lack of adaptability in the local Kindergarten. Is it not a personal equation, at least to a considerable extent? Does it not strike you occasionally that some very poorly equipped beginners take up this work? Is there not real peril for the Kindergarten in a low academic standing of those who offer and are accepted?

I understand that some have never met the Senior leaving tests! Shades of Emanuel Kant and all the others! Surely the subtle philosophy on which Froebel was nourished, and that is developed in all of his works, demands a fair measure of mental development. Benevolent intentions and a warm heart are not sufficient for these things. I know it is a miserable reward often tendered in the pittance of a Kindergarten. "That was a poor sermon," said mother to son, as they left the church, "Well now, mother, what could you expect for a penny," said the boy who had eyed the collection plate.

But, after all, we sermon makers, and sermon tasters, and Kindergartners, are in this thing for the good of our souls, aren't we? And we can't afford to say too much about the shekels. And yet again, doesn't it *still* depend on the Kindergartner?

There's a suspicion abroad, and sometimes we hear it darkly hinted, that Kindergartners are found here and there, who never seem to have any sense of responsibility, and who therefore, never develop any genuine capacity. The child was made for the Kindergarten, not the Kindergarten for the child. For them, the beginning and end seems to be found in a mechanical routine. They saw this thing done thus, and so they do it; number one is followed by number two of course. What it means for the child, they seem slow to apprehend.

"The letter stands, without expanse or range,
Stiff as a dead man's hand."

Somehow, these people we are thinking about, never seem to realize the system has a soul; but imagine it must be inherent in stick peas, weaving, and embroidery to carry on the work of Froebel by themselves. Surely it is not too much to ask that they come out of their closet and its stores of patent-right materials, to mingle freely with Primary teachers, and seek to make their work better understood.

It were wise, perhaps, to articulate the Kindergarten a little more closely to the work of the Primary department, not by hybridizing the Kindergarten, but by the Kindergartner occasionally trying to feel the bearing of her work on the days to come.

Each child should have his individuality studied and respected. Even if your class is big, aim at this. Only in that way can self activity be promoted and his faculties awakened as they may be.

The culture of the successful Kindergartner must be generous, is she is to stir and awaken the many souls who come trooping to her fairy palace.

But even in the absence of such generous and many sided culture, much good work may be done when there is genuine enthusiasm accompanying even a single talent.

To put oneself into some one bit of well done work, to speak through some mouth-piece so that your soul is really heard, will do more to awaken a sense of reality in the child, than all the respectable monotony of dull mediocrity.

The Kindergarten has won its way where it has had its hardest work to do, and its best apology where you are will be its work well done.

“Whatever is strong with a purpose,
In humbleness woven, soul-pure,
Is known to the master of workers.
He toucheth it, saying ENDURE.”

TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

CHAIRMAN'S ADDRESS.

S. SILCOX, B.A., D.PAED., TORONTO.

The function of the Training Department should be to define education, and to decide what should be the test of education; to discuss the progress of education; to point out the path of progress for the future; to investigate and to determine method. My remarks will be based upon these topics.

There are many good definitions of education available. All good definitions contain the idea of mental development, with power to adapt one's self to new conditions of society. The individual is developed with the object of producing a valuable member of society. We all agree with these ideas, but unfortunately our practice does not conform to them. We continue to test education from the individual side. "How much does the pupil know?" is our test, whereas, "How much can he do?" should decide his claim to education; that is, the power to apply knowledge is vastly more important than the mere possession of facts.

THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION.

The most striking progress in educational matters during the past twenty-five years has been in buildings and equipment. This is good, but by no means the most important. The teacher is more important than buildings and equipment, and we must agree that much improvement has been made in the training of teachers. While we do not believe that the teachers of twenty-five years ago were inferior in character to those of to-day, we think that their method was crude when compared with that of the trained teacher of to-day.

More important than the progress in method is the progress in ideals. The ideal of twenty-five or thirty years ago was rapid promotion and an early graduation. Many second class teachers

spent only six months in the High School in preparation for their examination. The ideal to-day is development rather than graduation. The course is broader, if not as "thorough," and the knowledge acquired is more significant because the generalizations are the pupils' own, not those of the teacher or of the author of the text-book committed to memory.

Those who wish to maintain the standard of former years will say that the present graduate of Public, High or Technical School is ignorant. He does not know the rivers, capes, bays; the rules in grammar, the definitions, etc. It is pointed out that in large departmental stores many mistakes in spelling and in arithmetic are made; that bank clerks are inaccurate in addition; that the writing is illegible, etc., etc. We admit the truth of these statements, but we wish, also, to point out that there were no large departmental stores employing so many immature boys and girls thirty years ago; that girls could not be obtained for such stores, then; that most of that kind of work in stores and banks was done by men, several years older than the girls in charge now; that the change in conditions has been extremely rapid; that, while evidence is abundant that the product of to-day's system is lacking in efficiency, there is no evidence available to prove that the product of thirty years ago was any better.

This dispute as to the relative standing of pupils of a certain age to-day, with those of the same age thirty years ago, will not be settled until we have more than mere opinions upon which to base our conclusions.

THE PATH OF PROGRESS.

If we could decide to-day, and decide rightly, what should be the path of progress for the next ten years, we would be doing more for education than could be done by any other single act. Shall it be a return to the more mechanical grind of thirty or forty years ago? The fact that such a method was satisfactory then is no assurance that it would be satisfactory now. Rather it is very decided proof that it would not be satisfactory. If you do not agree with this statement, answer these questions: Would the successful preaching forty years ago, hold us to-day? Would the successful lawyer of forty years ago command, by the same

methods, the respect of the public to-day? Would the mechanic of then succeed now? No, no, no. Nor would the educational practises of then, suited as they were to the times, be considered satisfactory now. The good old days, the good old times, the good old customs have played their part, and it is worse than waste of time to try to restore them. Conditions are far too different to be met by old methods. New wine in new bottles is the only safe rule.

The new problems, which must be met by new methods, in Canada in the immediate future, are as follows:

(1) Rapid growth of cities, presenting new problems of government, transportation and sanitation.

(2) Increase of foreign population which must be assimilated safely and thoroughly.

(3) Increase of wealth with its attendant dangers.

(4) Rational treatment of defectives and insane.

(5) Reform of youthful criminals.

(6) Control of the liquor traffic.

(7) Reform of civil service, doing away with the evils of patronage.

These are difficult problems, which critics of our educational system seldom mention. One would suppose, judging by the statements of critics, that the great problem of education is to produce enough clerks and typewriters to do the clerical work of our large corporations, departmental stores and government offices. Correct spelling, rapid calculation, good reading and writing are important, but they are only the means, not the end of education. The men at the heads of our public institutions, great manufacturing concerns, even of our great educational institutions have not been placed there because they have distinguished themselves as lightning calculators, good readers or even passable writers. It is as organizers and inventors (using this word in a wide sense), that these men have distinguished themselves. Many of them jest at their penmanship and their inability to make mathematical calculations rapidly and accurately.

It would be easy to find many students in the University of Toronto who could take a higher percentage in reading, writing, spelling and arithmetic than the President and the Professors;

easy, too, to find many teachers in subordinate positions throughout the Province who could obtain higher standing in the above subjects than the Superintendent of Education, the Normal School Principals and Masters and the High School teachers. These subjects may be the essential subjects in the Public School course, but excellence in them is no indication of ability to lead or to inspire others. Initiative is more important than mechanical efficiency. By all means let us try to secure the latter, but let us remember that it is subordinate to the former.

INVESTIGATION OF METHOD.

Investigations of educational problems have been remarkably few. Every teacher should be an investigator, but routine work takes up nearly all of the ordinary teacher's time. Now and then, some educator gets a new idea. It may be proclaimed a panacea for all educational ills, but most of us go on in the same old way. The Batavia System is recommended by all who have tried it as much superior to the ordinary class method, yet it does not appear to be making any headway in Ontario. It should be investigated by some organization, and the results arrived at should be published and distributed among all our teachers.

Some of our teachers and inspectors have made investigations as to the effect of kindergarten work upon the progress of the child in the higher grades. In Chatham, children from the Kindergarten pass the Entrance Examination at an earlier age (one to two years) than the other children. The same result has been observed in Peterborough. These two cases, however, may be exceptional. We want similar investigations in every town and city in the Province.

Dr. Rice made an extended investigation on the relation between the time spent on a subject and the results obtained, reaching the conclusion that there is a maximum daily time, beyond which no benefit results to the student, for each subject, from further study. In arithmetic, he places the maximum at forty minutes; in spelling at fifteen minutes; in arithmetic and all the English subjects, two hours. This, if true, means that there are from two to two and a half hours each day that could be devoted to such subjects as geography, nature study, manual training, drawing, music, etc., without any actual loss to the

pupils in the essential subjects. (See "The Forum," 1902-3-4-5-6, for full particulars of these investigations.)

We have some confirmation of Dr. Rice's conclusions in this Province. The pupils in the Provincial Model School, at Toronto, attend from 9.30 a.m. to 3.30 p.m., with an hour and a half noon. They do all the prescribed work of the required course, and, in addition, in the entrance classes, spend seven hours a week on music, art, manual training or domestic science, drill or calisthenics, Latin and French, Algebra and Euclid, and still pass the Entrance Examination, as well as, or better than those pupils who devote all their time to the prescribed course, and spend a longer time in school each day. I satisfied myself by investigations made in the St. Thomas Public Schools that Dr. Rice's conclusions are generally correct, and I have had evidence from Hamilton of a similar nature.

Within the last ten years, school gardens have made a claim upon the attention of educationists. Their effects should now be apparent. Mr. Gayman, of the famous Rittenhouse School, says that the results in his school are, "Better work done; children more interested in school; time well spent both for teacher and pupils; . . . pupils averaged 87 per cent. at Entrance Examination; no difficulty in getting self-expression. The garden will produce good citizens as well as good vegetables."

To avoid attack by carping critics who conclude that the older subjects are being neglected, simply because new ones are being introduced, we need reports like those quoted above, from every available source, so that a definite answer may be given to the oft-repeated charge, "The schools are a failure."

If the schools of to-day are a failure, it is the graduates of the schools of twenty or thirty years ago who are responsible, because our Inspectors, Normal School Masters, Model School and High School Principals are men who have had twenty-five or thirty years' experience in educational work. They have shaped the educational policy of the Province and have determined the training in the schools. *They have not failed.* Standards may have varied from year to year. Progress may not have been unchecked always. But we stand to-day on a higher level than we stood thirty years ago, and we are not going backward.

THE ETHICS OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

JOHN B. ROBINSON, B.A., B.PAED., HAMILTON.

The glories of our civilization are not in vast population, material wealth, nor in dominion over wide lands, but in the kind of man the country turns out and the moral safety and the material comfort of the masses of the people. In training for citizenship our first lesson is the teaching of proper ideals. Right moral character is the chief element in good citizenship; the life and welfare of the nation are dependent upon it. The British Empire is called upon to found a nation, out of which shall come the moral nations of the world. The real dangers are from within. The lust of wealth and the vulgar faith in multitudes and magnitudes, instead of faith in the Christian character demand serious consideration. In Canada, as in every land under free government, the teacher and the school are mightily influential in settling the character of its citizenship, and so determining its capacity for self-government. The nineteenth century attached great importance to the acquisition of knowledge, the twentieth century should have especially in view, the formation of character. With this object, teachers with higher attainments are urgently needed, and scholarship, professional knowledge and experience will have higher value.

The educational policy of our fair Province of Ontario broadens the horizon as we look into the future and see great privileges and great opportunities which impress us with solemn duties and heavy responsibilities. We are now fairly launched on the flood-tide of better conditions for efficient work and with an optimism born of hope, we should aim at the moral and spiritual, as well as the intellectual development of those whose beauty of life will find its way into the hearts of their pupils and become a part of the glory of humanity.

Our plans for securing moral development are still vague. In the school of life, environment and self are acting and reacting upon each other. Modern life is permeated by a wonderful industrial activity. The material advancement of this age has made possible many desirable things which before were beyond our reach. The aim should be the development in the individual of a

character, efficient for good thorough service; and through the individual, will come that larger service which ministers to the welfare of the community.

The teacher, whether good or bad, leaves his everlasting imprint on every pupil who comes under his care. Whatever the instructor is becomes immortal through the souls of his pupils. From the highest ethical point of view we may say that a man's value is measured in terms of service to his fellowmen. Our problem as educators, then, is to fit our teachers-in-training, so that each one will in his own place in society and in his own way render to his fellowmen the best service of which he is capable.

Teaching is a beneficent vocation and the highest motive of the teacher is the love of doing good. We are coming to know, as never before, that there is nothing—motive, impulse, thought, aspiration—that is not finding expression in the tone and quality of the whole personality. If teachers felt their responsibility and their need they would pray often and earnestly the prayer of Socrates,—“Ye gods make me beautiful within.” To be humane in spirit and benevolent in act is to possess the highest qualifications for the vocation of teaching. A sense of superiority and a pride of authority have often alienated the student from the teacher and have fostered antagonisms not conducive to peace and good order. A careful consideration for the rights and feelings of students should be a first principle in the art of school management.

The character of the teacher is the most important factor in moral training in any school. It is significant that the two greatest moral teachers of the ages, Socrates and Jesus, left no formal books of instruction, but relied upon their lives and the effect of their lives upon their disciples as the means of propagating their teaching: Poor, indeed, is the service rendered if the intellect alone prevails. The great teacher's heart must glow with a warm and unfeigned love for the good of humanity. He must have that fire of the soul which is too strong and too noble to be unwise, unkind, or untrue. Love must permeate and dominate his life and thought. It matters little how much teachers know unless their personality is such that their pupils have respect for their judgment and are pleased to carry out their wishes. To arouse in the mind worthy purposes which may become supreme in life is the highest privilege of a teacher. The tendency of our social life

is to conform to the artificial, regular and common place. Instructors must be familiar with the business and the social life in which they are teaching.

The fundamental constituent of character is power, not blind force, but directed energy, efficiency in action toward some definite result. Moral character secures its results by foresight of what these results ought to be. The province of education is to develop habits of self-control and train the judgment to right power of choice. The great need of the time is men who can do things. We must not forget the fact that the teacher and pupil must meet on common ground, that there is no education, no training, except that which comes from personal influence, from the touch of soul with soul. If a man has in himself the true hunger for learning, the desire to find out more and more of the secrets of nature, of the mind and of the heart, this spirit cannot be kept within himself. We, as teachers, need the true interest in scholarship that is not a transient curiosity but an abiding longing for truth, an appetite, that grows by what it feeds on. Ruskin has well said, "And the entire object of true education is to make people not merely do the right things, but enjoy the right things, not merely industrious, but to love industry, not merely learned, but to love knowledge. —not merely pure, but to love purity—not merely just, but to hunger and thirst after justice."

Judgment, the sense of relative values, is the selective, discriminating, directive principle of character. Correct moral education must consider in affording occasions for making and testing judgments. If the body be governed by a strong will, and the mind dominated by high desires and sustained by vigorous common sense, we shall have a character that will be a power for good in the teaching profession. Just in proportion to the richness of the teacher's life, the fineness of his thoughts, the touch of his aspirations and the nobleness of his nature, will these excellences be found in the character of the students-in-training. It is the privilege and duty of training schools to inspire, to set the student on fire with the desire for excellence and for the full development of powers that he may reach the highest and noblest attainments.

Training schools can rise to the full dignity of a self-conscious power by making teaching a learned profession, by socializing the aims, means and methods of the teaching process, and socializing the school as an institution. To accomplish this aim the teacher

needs to foster the development of positive insight, cosmopolitan sympathy, generous instincts of service and heroic attitude toward difficulties. The point of growth for both mind and morals is where the pupil and teacher come into vital unity in thought and action. The spirit of Pestalozzi has shown that the essential method of education is the sharing of life. We are dealing always with a world of persons. It is the promising feature in the "New Education" that the heart of the whole movement is a deeper reverence for humanity. Broad and accurate vision should characterize all training schools. Rousseau exclaimed in one of his moments of inspiration,—“A teacher! What a noble soul he ought to be!” The supremacy of the ethical interest in human life is perhaps the point of most general agreement among philosophers of all schools. Intellectual and executive skill is power that may be used either helpfully or harmfully. One of the crying evils of the present time is the extent to which men of great intellectual and executive ability are willing to use their power for purely selfish ends, sometimes, even in direct violation of the public welfare.

Self-control is the secret of all control and the great test of life is the sacrifice we are willing to make. To be able by influence on others to make their lives mean more is the reward of the best teachers. A recent book is dedicated to a distinguished scholar and teacher, who is designated as an enlarger of human lives. Michael Angelo once paid a visit to the studio of Raphael when the artist was absent. On an easel there was a canvas with the outline of a human form, beautiful, but too small. The visitor took a brush and wrote under the figure the word “*Amplius*.” The same word might be written under many teachers’ lives. No one is made larger by giving him more money, better furniture, finer pictures, but by giving him knowledge, wisdom, and good principles, and by teaching him love.

Carlyle in his “*Heroes and Hero-worship*” with deep insight tells us that, “Every true man feels that he himself is made higher by doing reverence to what is really above him.” Not only the teacher’s personal example but his spirit gives positive trust and confidence, and doubtless we all agree that White’s law to be written over every school-room door is not too high a standard—“No man or woman shall enter here as a teacher, whose character and life are not fit models for the young to copy.” Every teacher ought to prefer his to every other calling, ought to have the spirit

of Froebel who said of his first experience in the school-room,—“It seemed as if I had found something I had never known, but always longed for, always missed, as if my life had at last discovered its native element. I felt as happy as the fish in the water, the bird in the air,” or that of Pestalozzi who summed up his soul’s longing by the words, “I want to be a schoolmaster.” All real teachers must be genuine, honest and true. No person should seek to be a teacher whose motive is selfish. There is nothing in the vocation to invite a person of such a spirit, but there is everything to invite one who seeks the welfare of his fellowmen. To those imbued with the spirit of humble self-sacrifice, of sincere consecration, of wide reaching benevolence, of lofty patriotism and disinterested altruism, the field is open and the invitation hearty.

Suitable training of a two-fold nature, academic and professional, is essential in addition to the fundamental natural qualities. Thorough mastery of the academic knowledge of subjects is absolutely essential, and no methods or school-room device or superficial tactics can take its place. It is a long and sad story how we have mistaken means for ends in education, and are making a great point of mastering the tools of knowledge, instead of concerning ourselves about wisdom. More teachers fail from ignorance of the subject matter than from any other cause. Teachers should arouse such a happy, heartfelt response as to give studies, ethical and even spiritual significance. Scholarship includes spirit as well as matter, an attitude of mind and disposition of soul, as well as the knowledge communicated in class-rooms. In respect of knowledge, scholarship implies breadth, perspective, a lifting of the intellectual horizon; and in respect of spirit, it implies delicacy of taste, a tempered imagination and that awakened zeal in learning which continues through life when school days are over. In the pursuit of culture proper, the mind must work in the air of freedom, and must be absorbed in the subject itself, and not in the utilities that it may be made to serve.

Academic culture alone will not suffice, there must also be the special technical training in the science and art of teaching. A teacher’s strictly professional education will consist of two main parts; he must have a knowledge of mind in its organic modes of procedure while engaged in the act of acquiring knowledge and he must know the educational value of the different knowledges presented for acquisition. His art will consist in intelligent adapt-

ing means to ends. The mental sciences must be studied as applied sciences. Living and working with those who have had different trainings and have different modes of thought, has a formative and developing influence upon personal character, which only those who have experienced both, or closely studied them can appreciate. Self-dependence and the right ordering of one's own life, within reasonable limits, ought to be encouraged to the greatest possible extent. Training schools should be the centre from which new light and leading continually come forth, and to recognize and utilize the advances which have been made and have become well established in principle and practice. Students are not by any means fully prepared during their course of training for the work they will have to do in schools. If we desire as teachers those who will form and regulate rightly the early lives of their pupils, we must have those who have learned to regulate their own lives wisely and well by their own wisdom and self-control; not those who have lived under a system which does the greatest possible amount for them, and leaves them to do the least possible amount for themselves. The school should be directly governed as a school, by those best fitted by special knowledge to devise the means for enabling it to fulfil its proper functions and these are the teachers and trained scientific educators who have spent their lives in gaining the knowledge and skill necessary for conducting schools.

I would have every person who enters upon the life of a teacher feel that to him it is the noblest of all human endeavors, the greatest of all privileges, the most sacred duty that he can undertake. All real teachers must be inspired. Education will fail of its transforming and creative power unless it is accompanied by a certain noble ardor and elevation of spirit, unless it affects the noble passions and emotions of the learner.

The genetic point of view is fundamental in efficient moral training. It seeks to relate all of the regular work of the school to the life of the learner. It seeks to determine the spontaneous interests at each stage of development and to correlate school work with these interests. It brings out with greater clearness the importance of suggestion and imitation in child training, revealing the variations of these to be adopted with advancing age. It is not enough that the teacher should profit by the results of others inspired by this point of view but he himself with this spirit will

look upon the same school equipment, the same daily routine, the same boys and girls as before with a different attitude. No longer ability to pass examinations, nor discipline, nor athletic standing, but the child himself will be the central object of the school.

It is strange how we still fail to see the necessity of the right cultivation of feeling and imagination. Our failure to follow the Golden Rule comes less from lack of good intention than from inability to put ourselves in imagination into the place of others and appreciate how they would feel under given circumstances. Much of the evil of human life, comes from the inability to put yourself in his place. A cultivated imagination is the basis of altruism; and a sensitive emotional life is the requisite for all response to moral ideals. The pupil should come to feel his own life, and truth as part of a larger life and truth. One of the ways of approach to this transference of the centre of interest is in the cultivation and right use of the imagination by which the person can transcend his own narrow limitations and make real in thought and feeling the world of people and things outside.

Equally important for moral power is the cultivation of the reason. Sound intellectual judgment is necessary in every department of human life. Herbart said that, "Great moral energy is the result of broad views, and of whole unbroken mass of thought."

Whatever system of ethical training may be introduced in our school-courses, nothing can relieve the teacher from his personal, moral responsibility. He cannot conceal his true character from the many searching eyes and inquisitive minds that are constantly studying him. The teacher must grow, and this advancement must be along lines both professional and general. While he enjoys the blessings of quickened intelligence, accumulated knowledge, and increased power in his own personal life; he will also be an inspiration to his pupils to lead them into broader fields and nobler life.

Devotion to good letters and thoroughness and enlightened methods is essential to good teaching. Except wide human experience, there is no source through which ethical good taste, the sense of moral proportion, can be so well cultivated as through wide and appreciative contact with all phases of human life as these are portrayed in the world's greatest literature. The schools emphasize scholarship rather than work and service. He who teaches us to look out upon the world through eyes of affection and sympathy,

charity, and good-will, has done more for us and for society than he who may have taught us the seven liberal arts. The filling of the mind with verbal, formal material, without putting it constantly to the test of trial, results in a kind of mental death, which shows itself in intellectual and moral confusion, and in inefficiency in life situations. The principle of authority is permanent, universal, but the motive for obedience and the form of the act conforming to the authority changes with the development of knowledge and power. Increasing intelligence is forcing modern civilization to base its authority upon insight and reason. Freedom, democracy, the kingdom of heaven, is developed by substituting for external forms of authority. An inner, omnipresent principle in the form of a personal ideal to be realized. The world is to be redeemed not by change of intellect; but by change of heart. If students are to put this better spirit into the world they must put it into their work; if it goes into their work it must come from their lives, and their lives must borrow it from other lives that have been touched and transformed by it. It is certain that all the great teachers of the world have been men of humane instincts, of warm sympathetic and ardent affections, and have owed their immortality quite as much to a responsive heart as to a strong intellect. The inspired moral life of the teacher is the essential moral power of his school. Humor, sympathy, cheerfulness, honesty and the other virtues are contagious. The only means of artistic ease, efficiency, and joy in teaching is a constantly growing power gained by a living touch with the sources of truth, beauty and goodness.

Morality develops by specific acts, and each act has its root in an instinct or impulse. A social situation is the natural stimulus and atmosphere for the discharge of these instincts and impulses. These acts must be repeated under varying circumstances, until the motive, means and results arise in consciousness so that the moral judgment grows. The standard of selection and test of goodness is the thought and feeling of progressive unity of the individual life with the unfolding moral purpose of the world.

At present the eye of man is upon the material and industrial aspect of the world as never before. The natural is set over against the supernatural, the material over against the spiritual. The antithesis between the material and spiritual must be dissolved, and they must be combined in a higher synthesis by a new vision of their unity. The moral forces of the universe must appropriate

the wealth of this world and turn it to the highest uses of men. Jesus pronounced the formula for uniting these conflicting aims when he said, "Seek ye first the kingdom of God, and his righteousness and all these things shall be added unto you." Physical freedom is realized and appreciated only when made to serve the soul's higher interests. Moral motives are in the life, and are present there as inspirations and guides. Only a small percentage of pupils continue as students and learners when school days are over. If the school period would lead the pupil to live a moral, studious, learning life after school, it must appeal to the motives native to life in and out of school.

Clear, vital knowledge is a great power for righteousness. Intellectual honesty is the first requirement as well as one of the highest results of the scientific method. A function of the teacher is to raise the race in morality not so much by rule or maxim as by developing insight into the worth and dignity of the individual life, and also by leading man to accept his method of developing the greatest worth by social service. The educator's purest inspiration, as well as his greatest reward, is the abiding consciousness that he is actively and intelligently coöperating with the highest and holiest powers of the world in producing its noblest product, the free moral agent. The teacher's sustaining and guiding principle in this labor of love is the thought that he and his pupil achieve this freedom by joyous obedience to the laws of life discovered by whole-souled allegiance to the highest ideal.

The moral world is passing through a series of upward transformations towards peace, charity, brotherly kindness and righteousness. The glory of the teacher's calling is that it is the agency by which human society is to be lifted to higher planes of physical, mental and moral perfection. Magnanimity, benevolence and moral courage are three requisites for attaining real success in the educating art, and the whole process is spiritual to an extreme degree.

If character is our aim in education, and we strive by our work to exalt in the minds of the students not only the love of good things, but the disposition and determination to do them, our love and theirs become radiant. If, by the training given, we can insure to them the power to carry out this determination, how marvellous is the inheritance into which they enter and how large becomes our calling. In the light of this high aim, material,

didactic, cheap or common-place service is no longer acceptable. Methods unsystematic, unacceptable to the young mind are no longer permissible, and the spirit impatient; petty and perverse is no longer possible. The high aim of character demands a worthy curriculum, wise and just methods, and a teacher of broad sympathetic and noble spirit. Great teachers are those who are able to touch the student's spirit into life, and leave the flower of personality unspoiled. They should lead aggressive lives and impress themselves upon the world for its good schools. To sum up, training should develop in each student a strong and effective moral personality, reverently obedient to the laws of life and controlled by clear-sighted reason, seeing, loving and willing the best on the plane of life that has been reached; strong in moral initiative and able to grow independently, ever toward loftier vision and nobler action.

Quoted in Concluding—

The School Teacher's Creed.—“I believe in boys and girls, the men and women of a great to-morrow; that whatsoever the boy soweth the man shall reap. I believe in the curse of ignorance, in the efficacy of schools, in the dignity of teaching, and in the joy of serving others. I believe in wisdom as revealed in human lives as well as in the pages of a printed book, in lessons taught, not so much by precept as by example, in ability to work with the hands as well as to think with the head, in everything that makes life large and lovely. I believe in beauty in the school-room, in the home, in daily life and in out-of-doors. I believe in laughter, in love and faith, in all ideals and distant hopes, that lure us on. I believe that every hour of every day we receive a just reward for all we are and all we do. I believe in the present and its opportunities, in the future and its promises and in the divine joy of living.”

EDWIN OSGOOD GROBER.

THE EFFECT OF STUDENT TEACHERS UPON MODEL SCHOOL PUPILS.

J. H. PUTMAN, B.A., B.PAED., OTTAWA.

The topic first assigned me was “Progress of Pupils in Provincial Model Schools.” I suggested to the Secretary to widen it

somewhat. There are only two Provincial Model Schools, and the progress of the pupils in two particular schools seemed a somewhat limited topic for a provincial meeting. The topic, as it now stands, is a broad one, because it must affect our Province as a whole under our proposed systems of training teachers. As long as we aim at graduating teachers who have combined some practice in teaching with the theory of education, we must have practice schools. We must hand over the children to the mercies of student teachers.

Now I do not propose to give any categorical answer to the question so often put, "Do pupils suffer when taught by student-teachers?" This question is asked and answered in every conceivable way and by all sorts of people in every village and town where a Model School is situated. I do not propose to answer the question because no definite answer can be given. The answer depends upon conditions so varied and so rapidly changing that definiteness is impossible.

If I were asked whether a particular class in training school A., in charge of Miss B., would not make more progress on some particular day, wholly under Miss B., rather than partly under her, and partly under student-teachers X. and Y., I might be able to say, "Yes." But this might be changed the next day when P. and Q., who are strong students, are to teach in place of X. and Y. Or, again, the answer might be different when X. and Y. teach the following week, because they may do much better than they did the previous week.

Let us change the question to the following:—"Would not Miss B. do better work for her pupils, and would they not make greater progress if they were taught wholly by her?" No one can answer this question, not even Miss B. herself. She might do better for her pupils next week or next month, but next year or two years hence, she might do much worse.

Let us now, for a moment, consider two somewhat opposite ideals of the function of a training school. It may be said that given some instruction in the theory of education, a student-teacher needs only a class upon which to practice his theory. When he goes out to manage a school for himself he must solve his own problems. He must teach and maintain order. He must discover the needs and limitations of his pupils. If his practice teaching is to be really practical, why not have it approach these

conditions? Why not hand over a class to a student and allow him to sink or swim as he may be able?

Another method is to give the student-teacher some judicious assistance. Assign a definite lesson. Examine his plan to see whether subject-matter is suitable or suggest that which is more suitable. Give him all possible information about the pupils' previous knowledge of the subject. Remain with him while he is teaching, and to a certain extent, relieve him of the more serious problems of discipline.

These plans are very different. Both have been practised in training schools. I mention them only to point out their widely-different effects upon the pupils taught. The former method enables only the strong teacher to succeed. It gives no real assistance. It does not teach the art of teaching. It does not provide for progress by stages from the easy to the difficult. It does not enable the student to learn one at a time, the several steps of a complicated art.

There can be no doubt that the first method would result in serious disadvantage to the pupils taught. The second method may be so practised that it will either remove the disadvantages wholly, or reduce them to a minimum. I shall assume that our training schools adopt the plan of practice-teaching, which enables the young teacher to master the technique of a complex art, by overcoming its difficulties, one by one.

I wish not to be misunderstood upon this point. I would be the last one to recommend a system of spoon-feeding for student-teachers, and I am quite convinced that too much help would be worse than none. A student-teacher should receive no direct help from the practice-school in method. This should be a part of his individuality, and his only concern about it should be to assure himself that his method is concise, simple, and that it violates no clearly-established principle of pedagogy. But surely we may show the student exactly what work the pupils have covered, tell him whether the lesson is introductory or review, advise him about maps and illustrations, refer him to reference works, bearing upon the lesson, and if he be an inexperienced teacher, we may examine his plan to make certain that the subject-matter is such as should be presented. Quite apart from any benefit to the student-teacher, this last is a simple act of self-defence on the part of the teacher of

practice-school. He must defend his pupils against possible incompetence.

What are the traditional disadvantages to children instructed partly by student-teachers, and to what extent are these disadvantages inseparable from a training-school? Perhaps the one most talked of is that under student-teachers, pupils' time is partly wasted. Neither an accurate knowledge of the theory of education, the careful supervision of students' subject-matter, nor the most painstaking attempt to acquaint them with pupils' attainments, can wholly do away with this loss. We may as well frankly admit that there is loss of pupils' time, and that the most we can hope for is to reduce this loss to a minimum.

And yet this loss is less serious than appears at a glance. In the first place we must remember that pupils lose some time, even when under the most skillful regular teachers. No teacher ever secures from forty pupils for even a single half-hour, their maximum power of attention. Then we know from experience, that a few student-teachers will do quite as well in holding pupils' attention, and will secure as high a maximum of effort as many regular teachers engaged in training schools. We know further that a fair proportion of student-teachers will conduct a lesson with only a moderate loss of pupils' time. My own observation would lead me to say that there is a distinct loss of pupils' time in 50% of lessons taught by student-teachers. This percentage will increase or diminish according to the number of wholly inexperienced student-teachers in the training-class.

But to admit that pupils suffer to a greater or less degree during half the lessons taught by student-teachers, would seem an admission serious enough to condemn the whole system from the standpoint of parents and children. What is to save the situation? My answer is, the regular teacher of the class. He listens to the student's lesson. He notes every false move. He gauges accurately the effect upon the children. He makes mental notes of deficiencies that must be made good. He seizes eagerly upon every good point made, and plans how he may extend and deepen its influence. He notes that Johnson and Clark have grasped the essential points; that Smith has a slight difficulty, and that Brown and Jones are wholly in the dark. He plans how he may supplement this lesson an hour later or to-morrow morning, by one which will clear up Smith's difficulty, and arouse the dormant and slug-

gish interest of Brown and Jones. The student's half hour has been only partially wasted at the worst, because it has revealed to the regular teacher, a situation where means and end can now be adjusted without loss of power or waste of time. To put the matter in another form, we may say that the loss caused to pupils through the work of student-teachers, must be made good at the expense of the regular teacher. If the regular teacher were not of a high type, the loss to pupils would be real and irreparable. It follows as a corollary that our training schools and practice schools can be maintained in a state of high efficiency only by attracting to them the most experienced and most successful men and women in the teaching profession.

Another objection urged against practice schools is that pupils who are taught by so many inexperienced teachers, become restless, unsteady, and inattentive, and therefore weak in power to concentrate. Poor teaching does foster all these evils. The bright pupils chafe restlessly under a dull lesson presented by a student-teacher, who seems only half-awake. This restlessness is aggravated when the child's energy, not being properly directed is also denied its natural alternative—the activity of play or mischief. Poor teaching does make the dull, more dull, and the inattentive, more inattentive, and restlessness and inattention are directly opposed to concentration. Pupils learn to concentrate only by the act of concentration. Even from the very beginning of school-life, they must be taught to give their whole powers to periods of intense work. One-half the science of education is bound up in a proper understanding of how to cultivate the *power of concentration*, and if student-teachers weaken pupils' powers in this respect the loss is serious.

I frankly state that, in my opinion, this is the one serious disadvantage to pupils taught in training-schools. The actual time lost through the poor teaching done by student-teachers is of little consequence to young children, but the habits of inattention, listless, indifference, and mind-wandering, may be of lasting injury.

Two things redeem the situation to a considerable degree. The regular teacher, fully aware of this serious drawback, tries to counteract it by securing a maximum of concentration during his own teaching periods. Then the actual time spent during a year by pupils in the ordinary training school, under inefficient student-teachers, is so short that the evil effects are not likely to become

confirmed into lasting habits. In our school this year we are allowing each student-teacher about 22 half-hour lessons in practice-teaching, a greater amount of time than ever allowed before, and yet the actual part of the school-year, during which any pupil will be under student-teacher instruction, will not exceed one-twelfth. If we allow that 50% of this instruction, is reasonably efficient, we have a possible margin of one-twenty-fourth of the child's whole school-year or about 8 school days, which might be largely spent in the formation of habits tending to weaken the power to concentrate. This is serious, but may be offset with compensating advantages.

Another objection urged against student-teachers is that their imperfections and palpable weaknesses may lead pupils to lose respect for teachers. I dismiss this objection, almost without consideration. In the first place pupils are sensible enough to know that student-teachers are inexperienced, and must make some mistakes. In the second place, the most serious errors of student-teachers are usually errors, that the pupils never detect, and would wholly fail to appreciate. And lastly, if the regular teacher treats the student-teacher with, becoming consideration, his pupils will do the same. If the pupils fail to treat the student-teacher with respect and courtesy, it will almost surely be because their regular teacher has failed to treat the young teacher with that consideration, which is due to youth and inexperience.

The law of compensation is almost as capable of mathematical demonstration as the law of the indestructibility of matter or the conservation of energy. It certainly operates in favour of pupils taught by student-teachers. These compensating advantages affect the pupils in two ways:—Directly through the lessons given by student-teachers themselves, and indirectly through the effect that student-teachers have upon the regular teachers of practice schools.

Student-teachers usually do not present more than a single lesson each week. They are thus able to make elaborate preparation. They read widely. They prepare accurate maps, charts and other illustrations. They take infinite pains to acquire a momentum, which is to be wholly expended upon a class during a half-hour or twenty-minute period. The result in many cases, is a suggestive and interesting subject-matter, and a freshness and vivacity of presentation, which makes the lesson more effective than many given by regular teachers. There may be and will be inaccuracies in

matter and weaknesses in presentation, which the regular teacher would have avoided, but on the whole, the lesson will stimulate the pupils. These student-lessons necessarily encourage the regular teacher to read widely along the same lines in order that he may criticise justly, and this breadth of reading benefits the pupils when taught by their regular teacher.

But by far the greatest indirect advantage to pupils from the presence of student-teachers, is the spur which the latter put upon the teachers of a practice school, constantly urging them to bring theory and practice into harmony. A teacher in a practice school cannot "go to seed," unless he has so lost all professional spirit as to become wholly indifferent to criticism. He must know thoroughly the foundation principles of his calling. He must keep well abreast with every modern movement which promises improvement, and he must show a readiness to adopt suggestions from every quarter. He must teach many lessons to his pupils, which are observed by students-in-training. These lessons are certain to be the best work of which he is capable, and the pupils who receive them should be receiving instruction of a high order. The excellence of these lessons is indirectly due to the presence of student-teachers, and they are a reasonable and natural compensation for some of the ineffective lessons taught by student-teachers themselves.

It will be readily admitted that the test of results is a valuable one, particularly if we make the test cover a long period. In our Province pupils have been taught by student-teachers for more than thirty years, and if we were to judge the effect by the success of these pupils in secondary schools, in colleges and universities, or in after life, we would have to admit that their Model School training has been no drawback. Scores of Public School Inspectors will bear witness that Model School pupils take the Entrance Examination at an earlier age, and with a higher standing than the average of other pupils. It is no exaggeration to say that the progress of the Model School pupils from the establishment of County Model Schools in 1877 to the present time has been a standing testimony to the benefits of highly trained teachers and professional schools.

Our training schools are now being re-organized, and in another year we shall have all our professional training given in schools wholly under government control. The present seems an

opportune moment to seriously consider whether we can make any improvements that will benefit the children taught by student-teachers, without lessening, in any way, the training given to student-teachers themselves. I have pointed out that in my view the pupil has been saved in the past largely because of the superior training given him by his regular teacher, and by the fact that he is taught for only short periods by student-teachers. But, if within a few years, our training schools are all to be filled with student-teachers, who have never taught, and if these student-teachers are to teach each a minimum of twenty-five lessons as now specified on the Normal School curriculum, then with a large training class, and a comparatively small practice school, the problem becomes a serious one. I wish to suggest for discussion two or three points which seem to me to be of some value.

Why should a curriculum say that every student must teach, at least, twenty-five lessons for criticism and grading? A student-teacher is not like a piece of furniture, which requires to pass through twenty-five processes before it is ready to crate for export.

Why not give the staff of practice school some latitude? When a student shows that she is a competent teacher, and able to teach a series of lessons in various subjects, worthy of honor, standing, why not pass her in teaching, excuse her from further formal tests and allow her to help in the practice school wherever her services may be needed. She would not get less, but probably more practice in teaching, but there would be this important difference. The lessons are no longer planned to suit her; she gives herself up wholly to the needs of the children. Relieved from the embarrassment of teaching for marks, and before critics, she shows here individuality more clearly, and gains greatly in confidence. She may spend her half hour in teaching a group of backward boys some difficult point in arithmetic, she may give extra practice in oral reading to some girls who need it very much, she may supervise the seat work in a primary class, or she may mark a set of exercises for some overworked teacher.

This plan would enable the staff of practice school to do more to aid those teachers who most need help.

My next suggestion is one easily put into practice, and one that perhaps many of you have tried. It will work best with the senior classes, where pupils have developed some power of self-control and can profitably spend occasional periods in seat work

left wholly to themselves. Instead of giving a student-teacher a whole class, or the whole of one section of a class, give him a few pupils. Six, eight or ten, selecting those who need the instruction. Allow the others to work at seats during the teaching period. The next recitation, or the next day, a different group of pupils will be chosen. The student gets the full amount of practice, but the individual pupil spends less time under student-instruction, and more time at seat work, a form of work, which, in my opinion, should never go out of fashion.

My last suggestion is, that student-teachers should have increased opportunity to supervise seat-work in the practice school. By this, I mean the student should have a general oversight of a section who are working exercises from books or blackboard, who are working at drawing or color work, who have finished a written exercise and require some help with its correction, who have prepared a spelling lesson and require a written test, or who are doing any one of the many necessary school exercises, which may not properly be classed as formal teaching. Our student-teachers very much need this work, and with skillful management they may be allowed to do it in a way that will greatly increase the dynamic teaching power of the practice school. I am convinced that our practice schools can be so conducted that the pupils taught will receive advantages which compensate many times over for the few disadvantages which are inseparable from a training school.

INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.

WILLIAM FRANCIS CHAPMAN, B.A., INSPECTOR OF PUBLIC
SCHOOLS, TORONTO.

This is an age when more value is placed on the child than in any former age. Just as the twentieth century is to be Canada's century, working to her great development, so also is this century to be the child's century looking to the progress that will be made in giving every child the greatest opportunity for its best development. As the best physical conditions are necessary to the highest mental and spiritual development, everything that makes for the best bodily condition of the child enters into and forms an important part in a system of education that is intended to be a full and harmonious development of man's triple nature—the physical, the mental, and the spiritual. The last decade has seen considerable progress along the line of discovering the physical handicap from which many school children suffer, and of remedying in whole or in part this disability. Many children have been blamed in the past for stupidity and incorrigibility who of themselves were innocent of either, but were sufferers from some physical defect brought on by neglect or heredity. It is the object of this paper to summarize what has been, and is being, done, to note the good results, and to suggest further extension of the work.

The first country to have medical inspection of schools was France. It was established by law in Paris in 1843, but, like many other philanthropic movements, made little progress at first. Some of the large cities of Germany and England have medical inspection of schools. It is, however, for the New World to take up the question, and, with that energy which marks New World enterprise, carry it to success.

Boston was the first city on this side of the Atlantic to adopt it, in 1894. Quickly the good work spread, until to-day many of the cities of the United States, and a few in Canada, have a more or less complete system.

New York has probably the most highly developed system in the world, with Philadelphia a close second. New York introduced the system in 1897, and has perfected it, so that since March, 1905, the system provides for a complete physical examination of every school child. New York has not only a large staff of physicians, with their districts and duties specifically assigned, but also a special corps of trained nurses, who, besides giving treatment for parasitic and contagious skin diseases, visit the homes to see that the doctor's orders are being followed, and to give instruction and practical assistance when necessary.

The following interesting and complete *résumé* of the system in Philadelphia is from a paper by Professor G. H. Heitmuller, A.B., M.D., published in *Washington Medical Annals*, March, 1907: "The System in Philadelphia is divided into.

"1. Sanitary inspection of buildings.

"2. Systematic examination of pupils.

"In sanitary inspection of buildings the following points are noted: (a) Overcrowding: The cubic capacity of each room, number of occupants. (b) Heating and ventilation: If steam or hot water. Is there provision for ventilation by direct or indirect method? Give temperature of air in rooms at time of visit, also maximum and minimum temperature. (c) Illumination: Are rooms well lighted? If from above, behind, etc. Number of windows, size, relation to pupils and to floor space. (d) Are buildings ordinarily clean? Are there accumulations of sweepings on grounds, in cellars, etc.? Is ice and snow promptly removed? (e) Drinking water: If raw, filtered, or sterilized. What provision for drinking vessels? Note condition of all sinks, plumbing, etc. (f) Toilets: Note condition of water closets and urinals, especially with regard to cleanliness, odors, etc. Give number and location of closets and urinals and state if sufficient for pupils using same. (g) Coat rooms: Note facilities for storing, whether lockers; whether one or more coats, hats, etc., hang on single hook; also ventilation. (The cloak rooms in the vast majority of Washington schools have no lockers or special means of ventilation, and consequently the odor is often very offensive.) (h) Cellars: How lighted, ventilated? Are they clean, whitewashed, dry? (i) Playgrounds: Give size and condition, also condition of sand pile. Are they adapted to needs of pupils? (j) Note character, quantity, and quality of cakes, candies, fruits, etc., sold about school to pupils.

INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.

"Exclude every child suffering from (a) Acute disease, be it contagious or not. (b) Any form of disease that may be a menace to other children with whom it comes in contact. (c) Any disease of sufficient gravity to seriously impede work of the pupil at school. (d) Exclude every child who does not show evidence of successful vaccination.

"Systematic examination of all pupils for defects of vision: myopia, hyperopia, strabismus, and astigmatism.

"Defects of hearing: test with watch and rule, inspect auditory canal.

"Deformities: spinal curvature, flat foot, etc.

"Ophthalmic diseases: acute and epidemic conjunctivitis and trachoma.

"Throat and nose diseases; mouth breathing, nasal discharge, adenoids, hypertrophied tonsils.

"Cutaneous diseases: impetigo, itch, etc.

"Chest diseases: phthisis, bronchitis, asthma.

"Parasitic diseases of scalp and elsewhere.

"A routine culture is made in all cases of sore throat."

Besides Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, which have daily visits, many other cities have bi- and tri-weekly, or less frequent, according to conditions or the call of the principal.

Some cities have a system of eye examination by the teachers, sometimes under the direction of oculists.

Montreal has lately added the system of nurses after the Medical Inspector, Dr. Laberge, had made a personal investigation into the merits of the New York system. The Board of Education in Hamilton in April, 1907, appointed Dr. James Roberts Medical Inspector of Schools.

In Toronto an experiment is being tried of having the teachers do the work under the guidance of Dr. Sheard, the Medical Health Officer of the city, but I know of no other city where the teachers are called upon to do the work. The teacher has not the technical knowledge required, and the teacher's duties are sufficiently arduous without this additional burden. While this system will produce some good results, especially along the line of aiding defective vision, to call it medical inspection is somewhat of a misnomer.

Having thus indicated what progress has been made in establishing the system, we may now consider the net value of the result. Among the many advantages that result from medical inspection of school children are the following:—

(a) The prevention of the spread of communicable diseases by excluding from school those contagious cases that are in their incipency and have not been recognized by parents.

(b) The placing of every child in the most favorable condition for progress by remedying, wholly or partially, those defects which retard a normal physical and mental growth.

(c) The securing of greater protection of other children, and the giving medical advice, especially as regards defective vision, defective hearing, and defective breathing.

Whenever a systematic test has been made of children in city schools a surprisingly large percentage are found to be suffering from defective vision, and a considerable number from defective hearing. Many statistics are at hand to verify this. The teachers in our schools have knowledge of many such cases without applying careful, rigid tests.

Many pupils who are restless, inattentive, and dull are suffering from some physical defect, or mal-nutrition, and these may by a little medical attention be transformed into bright and happy children, with a new life before them. There are also the mentally defective, who require special treatment and teaching.

Special classes for defective children were first established by Principal Haupt, with the concurrence of his School Board in 1759, in Halle, in Prussian Saxony. It was quickly demonstrated that the isolation of these unfortunate children into small classes, taught by teachers of special qualifications, was a rational, just and most humane treatment.

In the year 1899, the City School Superintendent of Mannheim, Dr. Sickinger, introduced a system of "instruction groups," having each an individual character. In addition to those classes for pupils capable of doing normal work, special classes known as "repeating" or "furthering" classes were formed for those who, from inadequate ability, could not be promoted, for if they were they would be "dregs" or "ballast" in the higher classes. For these a special goal is set, and they receive more individual attention, for the classes are smaller. If, however, it is found that a child is so meagerly endowed mentally that he is not being

benefited in a "repeating" class, he is transferred with the aid of the school physician to an auxiliary school class. In the school year 1904-05 there were four of these classes in existence, with a total of 67 children. There would thus be a smaller percentage of pupils in the auxiliary classes in Mannheim than in Halle, owing to the sifting process through the "repeating" classes.

When a pupil is transferred to one of these special classes, called also "repeating," or "furthering" classes, he presents a transfer card conveying the following information, certified by his former teacher:

1. PERSONAL HISTORY OF THE CHILD.

Name of child.

Date of birth.

Place of birth.

Religion.

Name of father or guardian.

Position of father or guardian.

Parents' residence.

2. HOME CONDITIONS OF THE CHILD.

Are both parents still living?

Has it a stepfather, stepmother, only a father, only a mother?

Is it an orphan, and under some one's care?

Is its education and care neglected?

3. PREVIOUS SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

Has it attended only this school?

Did it come from some other place? (From what school, class, and in what school year was it?)

Was its attendance in any class irregular? (Why?)

4. THE CHILD'S BACKWARDNESS.

In what classes did it remain more than one year? (State briefly in what subjects its work was unsatisfactory.)

5. REASON FOR ITS BACKWARDNESS.

On account of lack of talent?

On account of lack of application?

Other causes (illness, transfer, home condition)?

6. FORMER DISEASES AND ACCIDENTS.

Fits? St. Vitus' Dance? Brain troubles? Head injuries?
Rickets? Dizziness? Diphtheria? Measles? Scarlet fever?
Whooping Cough? Etc.

7. PHYSICAL ANOMALIES AND SIGNS OF DEGENERATION.

Signs of paralysis? Headache? Speech? Hearing? Eyesight? Organs of smell? Swelling of glands? Trembling and twitching of muscles? Curvature of the spine? Malformation of the limbs? Chronic diseases? Etc.

8. PSYCHICAL PECULIARITIES.

Cleanly? Attentive? Good-willed? Sociable? Mendacious? Thievish? Dull? Excitable? Irritable? Sensitive? Passionate? Whimsical? Bashful? Lazy? Imaginative? Forgetful? Superficial? Mean? Etc.

9. SPECIAL INCLINATIONS AND ABILITIES.

Singing? Writing? Drawing? Arithmetic? Hand-work? Etc.

10. GRADE OF SCHOOL-WORK REACHED.

It is very evident that this whole subject of special classes for defective children is fraught with difficulties and requires most careful and delicate handling. Parents naturally resent any suspicions regarding the mental disability of their children, and if these auxiliary schools are ever held up to scorn in any way, or are dubbed "mad schools" or "dunce schools," the whole system becomes unworkable.

The limits of this paper forbid a more extended reference to the work of these special classes, but enough has been given to show the close relationship existing between medical inspection of school children and the formation of these classes. For the facts regarding the schools of Halle and Mannheim, the writer is indebted to a late Bulletin from the Bureau of Education, Washington, entitled "The Auxiliary Schools of Germany," by Doctor Maennel, which gives a complete history of their growth and good work.

There has just been printed by order of the Legislative Assembly of Ontario, a most interesting and instructive report by Dr. Helen MacMurchy, of Toronto, on "The Care of the Feeble-Minded in Ontario." Dr. MacMurchy is an enthusiast in sociological work, and has spared neither time nor energy in collecting definite information on this important subject. I ask your indulgence while I read a short paragraph from her report:

"MENTALLY DEFECTIVE CHILDREN IN OUR SCHOOLS.

"The Department has communications from forty-five different people in the Province in reference to this branch of the enquiry. There can be no doubt that here is the place to concentrate our attention and energy. The problem must be studied in the school-room. Dr. Potts, one of the investigators specially appointed by the Royal Commission in Great Britain, examined 31,092 school children in the 'Pottery Towns' of England. He found 185 of the number mentally defective, or about .59 per cent. Dr. Francis Warner, in an examination of 100,000 children in London, showed that one per cent. were mentally defective, and other authorities have published statistics to show that about two per cent. of the elementary school children in certain large cities will never be able to manage their own lives successfully on account of mental deficiency. This seems appalling, and perhaps the most important lesson we can learn from it is the necessity of our dealing with the question *now* while we have nothing like that number. If we let this time pass and defer and delay to face the question, the number will inevitably increase until we lose the present opportunity and come to feel, as they do in England, that the problem is so utterly overwhelming that it cannot be dealt with successfully. From the statistics now before me, I have reason to think

that the number of mentally defective children of school age in Ontario is somewhere between three and five per thousand, that is .3 to .5 per cent. of the total population under 14. But it is difficult to form a correct estimate at present. We need very much a better enforcement of our Truancy Laws. It seems to be generally agreed that there are many children of school age who are not in school, and, of course, one cannot wonder that the backward and mentally defective children, who feel they are not wanted there, and for whom nothing much is attempted to be done in our schools at present, are the first to stay away. It is very important to differentiate between a child who is only backward, and one who is mentally defective. 'A mentally defective child would be abnormal for any age, whereas a backward child is merely abnormal for its own age.' A child is often backward because he does not see well, or does not hear well, or does not breathe or develop well on account of adenoid growths almost closing the breathing passages and thus preventing the purifying of the blood. He may be backward because he works long hours out of school, or because he is not properly fed, or because he is not well. The School Doctor, when Medical Inspection of Schools, now permitted and advised in this Province, is carried out, will save and help many backward children and mentally defective children. But while skilled medical aid to sight or hearing or breathing may, and often does change a backward child into a normal child, no skill, no knowledge no training—nothing—will ever change a mentally defective child into a normal child. What can be done is to make the most of the powers and capacities the mentally-defective child has—to train the bodily powers, the hand, the eye,—the power of working, and place the child who will always remain a child in mind, though not in body, in the society of its equals, in a sheltered corner of the world, that is, an Institution, where conditions are adapted to it. The life history of the mentally-defective children in our Public Schools to-day may be written down in outline just as soon as their mental defect has been accurately recognized, or, to speak medically, diagnosed."

From what sources comes the demand for Medical Inspection?

1. Such work is a strong ally of Boards of Health. Unless rigid and continuous preventive measures are taken, the school is a powerful agency for the spread of contagious diseases.

2. Teachers feel the need, and welcome the physician's aid.

3. Parents give no opposition when they understand the matter, and soon appreciate highly the object sought to be attained.

Naturally the need of Medical Inspection is greatest in the large cities, where the population is much congested. Urban schools, likewise, call more loudly for the system than do the rural, but there is a need, to a greater or less degree everywhere, and the progressive colony of Tasmania has lately established the system of medical inspection in the rural schools.

Before concluding, I desire to read a few of the many testimonies of School Superintendents and Health Officers as to the value of Medical School Inspection where the system has had a fair trial. These reports came to me last May in response to a series of inquiries. They show the practical working of the system and its popular approval.

In reply to your enquiry of May 18th, I may say that we have had systematic medical inspection in the Public Schools of this city for the past eight years.

We have one medical inspector, who gives practically all his time to the work. This inspector is a regular physician of wide experience; he is likewise a member of the Board of Health. His work has been of very great service to the schools, so great, in fact, that we feel that we could scarcely do without it.

JAMES E. BRYAN,

Camden, N.J., May 23rd, 1907.

Superintendent.

In reply to your recent letter concerning Medical Inspection in our Public Schools, I beg to say that our Board of Health appropriated \$10,000 at the beginning of the current year for this purpose. Twenty-one district physicians were named to inspect the schools. Pupils suspected of having contagious disease are sent to the office by the teachers and there examined privately by the district physician. The principal has power to exclude pupils on the order of the district physicians.

F. D. DYER,

Cincinnati, May 25th, 1907.

Superintendent.

Medical inspection is carried on in the schools of Hartford directly by the Board of Health, operating so far as exclusions from school are concerned in connection with the Board of School Visi-

tors. It has been carried on for about eight years, and has been very successful in preventing the spread of contagious and infectious diseases among school children, and, of course, throughout the city.

Three inspectors are employed, physicians of repute, who devote about two hours each day to the work, visiting the schools, all of them at least once a week. Children found to have suspicious throats, diphtheria bacilli, scarlet fever scale, measles in early stages, etc., are excluded; also children with parasitic diseases of the head, vermin, and recently those who are in a filthy condition, are also excluded. The Board of Health, through its inspectors, traces these children up until something is done in the way of cleaning up, getting rid of vermin, etc. Unless parents are observant of the recommendations of the Board of Health in this regard, they are taken before a magistrate and fined.

THOMAS S. WEAVER,

Hartford, May 20th, 1907.

Superintendent.

The medical inspection of schools in the city of Indianapolis is in charge of the Department of Public Health and Charities. There are twenty-four physicians, who are assigned one or two schools, according to the size of the school. They are expected to make one inspection per week, and such other inspection as the principal may desire. We find that considerable assistance is given the Health Department in the early recognition of infectious and contagious diseases. The Inspectors are not permitted to prescribe or suggest any line of treatment, but must refer the child to the family physician.

EUGENE BUEHLER, M.D.,

Indianapolis, May 21st, 1907.

Health Officer.

We have had a regular system of medical inspection in the Paterson schools for the past ten years. This work is done by six Paterson physicians. Each of these six physicians calls at four schools every day. The principals and teachers of the schools send to the waiting room all pupils that they think the physician

should see. We have recently added to the force one inspector, who will give close attention to the eyes of the children. Inspectors receive \$250 a year.

JOHN R. WILSON,
Superintendent

Paterson, N.J., May 23rd, 1907.

In reply to your letter of the 18th instant, permit me to say that we have regular medical inspection of our Public School children in Philadelphia, and that it is in its third year of operation. The work is under the supervision of this bureau, and is done by a corps of fifty inspectors, all of whom are graduates of medicine. The advantages of the work are manifold: first, in detecting children suffering from contagious diseases in their incipiency, and their prompt exclusion from school; next, in detecting children that are suffering from any malady that impedes their progress, and who should be receiving medical care; and, third, in detecting children who, while physically or mentally defective, are not suffering from such ailments as would require their exclusion from school, but who should be under a doctor's care.

Since the organization of the work in Philadelphia it has grown in such favor that I do not believe the public would now consent to its abandonment.

A. C. ABBOTT,
Chief of Health Bureau.

Philadelphia, May 24th, 1907.

Having established the needs for such work and its practicability, it but remains to urge all school authorities to take steps to inaugurate the system, either directly by Boards of Education or through the local Boards of Health, or through conjoined action by the two Boards. The work can be extended as the necessities may require, and it is certain that satisfactory results will follow.

THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF CALIFORNIA.

J. H. SMITH, P. S. INSPECTOR, WENTWORTH COUNTY.

It was my privilege to spend a few weeks in California in May, 1907, and while there I became deeply interested in the working of the State Public School System. The fundamental

principles upon which that system is based, do not differ materially from those underlying our own system. These principles briefly stated are:—(1) Every child in the state between the ages of 5 and 21 has the right to attend a Public School. (2) The entire support of these Public Schools is made a charge upon the public revenues. (3) None but legally qualified teachers are permitted to teach in them.

In some respects the practical application of these principles differs from the way in which we apply similar principles, and the advantages are not all on our side. We can study their system with profit to ourselves, and gather lessons of wisdom from it. In fact, if we had more of the inspiration and enthusiasm of the West, our own system would show more vigorous growth. We have not yet reached the zenith of perfection, however much we may admire our own handiwork. We are face to face with some educational problems that will tax our energies, and require the combined wisdom of our best men, to find a reasonably satisfactory solution.

The legal machinery consists of four governing bodies, and three sets of officials, besides the teachers and the financial agents. The governing bodies are:—(1) The State Board of Education; (2) County Boards of Education; (3) City Boards of Education; and (4) Boards of Trustees for rural districts. The three sets of officials are:—(1) The State Superintendent of Public Instruction; (2) County Superintendents; and (3) Census Marshals. In addition to these, there are four classes of teachers:—(1) Kindergarten-Primary; (2) Grammar School; (3) High School; and (4) Specialists in Manual Training, Domestic Science, Music, Art and in a few instances, Languages. The financial agents are the State Legislature and the County Supervisors.

The State Board of Education consists of:—(1) The Governor (ex-officio chairman); (2) The State Superintendent of Public Instruction (ex-officio secretary); (3) The Principals of the Normal Schools; (4) The President of the State University; and (5) The Professor of Pedagogy. The powers vested in this Board and the duties required of it are similar to those of the Education Department of Ontario.

The County Board of Education consists of the County Superintendent (ex-officio secretary), and four other members appointed by the County Supervisors, a majority of whom shall

be experienced teachers. The appointed members hold office for two years, and are eligible for reappointment. The duties of this Board are:— (1) To have the general oversight of the County Schools; (2) To grant certificates to teachers; (3) To adopt a list of books for school libraries; (4) To prepare a course of study for the County Schools; (5) To enforce the use of a uniform series of text books.

Three trustees are elected by ballot for each rural district, and each trustee holds office for three years. The annual election is held on the first Friday in April in each year, and the trustee elect enters upon his duties on the first day of the July following.

The charters of the different cities contain special provisions relating to education, but the State School law defines the powers and duties of all Boards of Education in counties and cities, and all Boards of District Trustees, as follows:—(1) To prescribe rules and regulations for all schools under their jurisdiction; (2) To control all school property; (3) To build schoolhouses; (4) To employ teachers, janitors, and other officials; (5) To report annually to the County Superintendent; (6) To keep the schools open eight months each year; (7) And to discharge such other duties as may be prescribed by statute.

The duties of the State Superintendent are:—(1) To superintend the State schools; (2) To report to the Governor biennially; (3) To apportion the State School Fund; (4) To prepare all blank forms; (5) To ascertain the number of census children in the State and (6) To call a biennial convention of the county and city superintendents.

The duties of County Superintendents are:—(1) To superintend the schools of his county; (2) To apportion the school moneys to each district; (3) To examine each school in his county once each year; (4) To distribute all school forms, reports and instructions to the proper school officers; (5) To keep a record of his official acts, and of the proceedings of the County Board of Education; (6) To approve of, or reject plans for school houses; (7) To report annually to the Superintendent of Public Instruction; (8) To grade schools in the month of July each year; (9) To report the number of census children in his county. Travelling expenses are not to exceed \$10.00 for each district in his county.

The census marshal is appointed by the local Boards of Trustees in each district, and by Boards of Education in cities and

towns. His duties are:—To take annually between the 15th and 30th days of April, a census of all children under 17 years of age, who were residents of his district on the said 15th day of April, and to report the results to the County Superintendent, on or before the 10th of May in each year. This report shall contain the number, age, sex, color, name, and nationality of the children listed, and whether any are deaf, dumb or blind, the names of the parents or guardians and their residence, the number of children not vaccinated, and such other information as may be required by the State Superintendent. The census marshal shall have power to administer oaths.

The general course of study prescribed by the State Board of Education, for Grammar and Primary Schools, embraces the following subjects:—Reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, geography, nature study, language and grammar, with special reference to composition, history of the United States, civil government, elements of physiology and hygiene with special reference to the effects of alcohol and narcotics on the human system, music, drawing, elementary book-keeping, and humane education.

County Boards of Education are responsible for the preparation of a course of study, and for the selection of the subjects to be taught in the County Schools. The State Board of Education specifies in general terms the subjects to be taught, but the County Boards are required to outline in detail the amount of each to be taught each term, and specify the number of periods each week to be devoted to each subject. The course covers a period of nine years, four in the Primary grades, four in the Grammar grades, and one for review, or for taking up part of the High School course. This completes the work of the Public School.

Teachers are engaged at a certain salary per month, and must file their certificates with the County Superintendent of Schools before entering upon their duties, and must inform him of the date of opening and closing schools, giving one week's notice of the latter. Experienced teachers are required to be placed in charge of the Primary grades in schools having more than two teachers, and they shall rank in point of salary with the highest grade of assistant teachers in the Grammar grades.

Certificates are granted to teachers as follows:—(1) Upon credentials alone; (2) Upon credentials supplemented by an examination, and (3) Upon passing certain prescribed examinations, both

oral and written. Certificates issued by the State Board of Education are valid throughout the State, and may be made permanent upon complying with certain conditions. County Board certificates are valid for six years in the County where issued, and may be renewed without examination. These certificates also may be made permanent in the county.

The Public Schools are supported by grants from a State School Fund, a county school tax, and a district school tax. The State School Fund which corresponds to our Legislative Grant, consists of moneys obtained from the following sources:—(1) A property tax, being a uniform rate levied on the assessed value of the entire State; (2) A poll tax of \$2.00 per head on each male of 21 years or over; (3) A property tax on railroads; (4) A tax on collateral inheritance which corresponds in the main with our inheritance or succession duties; (5) Interest on permanent bonds held in trust; and (6) Interest or rent on State school lands. The financial year closes on the 30th of June, and the legislative grants are apportioned in July and January of each financial year.

For the year ending 30th of June, 1906, the property tax amounted to \$2,865,748.76; the poll tax, \$604,677.50; the property tax on railroads, \$129,176.36; the tax on collateral inheritance, \$250,000.00; the interest on permanent bonds, \$214,185.18; rent of State school lands, \$28,012.49; making a total of \$4,092,691.59.

The method of apportioning this fund is as follows:—The State is divided into 57 counties; each county is divided into school districts; each school district has a census marshal, who is required to make a careful enumeration of all the children in his district between 5 and 17 years of age. These are known as census children. The census marshal sends his report to the County Superintendent. Then under the present law, the census of each district is divided by 70 which gives the number of teachers allowed to that district; for each district is allowed one teacher for each 70 census children, and for each fraction of 70 not less than 20. In districts having less than 70 census children, no matter how small the number, one teacher is allowed for each such district. The number of teachers allowed for the several districts in each county is reported to the State Superintendent by the County Superintendent at the time of reporting the census.

In the apportionment of the State School Fund in January, 1906, \$250.00 was granted to the several counties for each teacher

allowed by the number of census children. This required \$1,951,000.00, which left a balance of \$2,141,691.59 of the State Fund to be distributed upon the basis of attendance. The total average attendance as reported by the County Superintendents for the year ending June 30th, 1905, was 217,873. This divided into the balance of the State Fund gave a grant of \$9.83 for each census child for that year. The State Grant therefore consisted of a special grant of \$250.00 for each teacher in each district, and the sum of \$9.83 multiplied by the number of census children in each district.

The county school tax is a uniform rate levied by the board of county supervisors upon the assessed value of the property in the county. The amount of this tax is fixed by the County Superintendent, and is based upon the number of teachers allotted to the county by the number of census children. The minimum must not be less than a sum equal to \$7.00 for each census child in the county in any one year, nor to exceed fifty cents on the \$100.00 of assessable property.

The Board of District Trustees, with the consent of the rate-payers, may, in any one year, vote a sum of money not to exceed 30 cents on the \$100.00 of assessable property for ordinary purposes, or 70 cents on the \$100.00 for building purposes. All county rates and all district rates are levied by the county supervisors. All votes under the school law are taken by ballot.

In California the text books are published by the State, under the supervision of the State Board of Education, and are furnished to the pupils at cost. The first experiments failed and some changes were demanded. By these changes a committee of three was appointed to supervise the preparation and the publication of text books. This committee is composed of the State Governor, the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and one member appointed by the State Board of Education. Their duties are defined by statute, and their official acts become valid and binding on the State only after being approved by the Board of Education.

This text book committee employs a number of critic readers to determine the practical value of the books submitted, and those approved by the critic readers are usually selected by the committee. This system has been in operation since 1903, and, as a

result a complete new series has been prepared for the use of the schools.

Speaking from my own personal inspection of these books, as seen in the schools in different parts of the State, I may say that I was not favorably impressed with either the subject matter of the contents, or the gradation and arrangement of the material. The mechanical work was not up to the standard of what a good text book should be, for the paper, the binding, and the printing are not of a high order of excellence. These books seemed to me to be defective in the selection of the subject matter, and of its adaptation to the educational requirements of the pupils for whom it was prepared. Many things that from my point of view seemed unimportant, found a place in these books, and things of primary importance were touched upon very lightly. The difference between essentials and non-essentials was by no means clearly defined. From the point of view of the learner, the writers or compilers failed to recognize the essential elements of the subject, which was too frequently burdened with technicalities that caused the pupils to cram, instead of obtaining even a moderate grasp of the essential elements of the subject.

From conversations with a number of the leading teachers, and some of the county and city superintendents in different parts of the State, I arrived at the conclusion that State published text books did not meet the requirements of the schools. In fact, in several instances more censure than praise was given. There are doubtless many real difficulties surrounding the problem of furnishing suitable text books, but State publication as it exists in California at present is not the best solution.

The following statistics are compiled from the report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, for the year ending June 30th, 1906:—

Number of children in the State, (5 to 17), white.....	430,005
“ “ “ black.....	3,317
“ “ “ Indian.....	3,371
“ “ “ Mongolian..	4,224
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	440,917

Number of census children attending school, public.....	321,870
“ “ “ private.....	43,080
“ “ “ no school..	75,967
	<hr/>
	440,917

Number of districts in the State	3,327
Number of teachers allowed on census of each district ...	8,100
Number of teachers employed, male 817, female 7,195...	8,012
Number of children in primary and grammar grades.....	294,939
Average daily attendance	224,660
Number of school houses, brick, 165; stone, 8; Adobe, 10; wood, 3,642	3,825
Average rate of school tax on the \$100 (county).....	26 cts.

The following are the receipts and expenditure for the Public Schools for the year ending June 30th, 1906:—

RECEIPTS.

Balance from 1905	\$2,329,252 95
State school grant	3,880,740 82
County school tax	3,179,964 81
City or district tax	501,474 87
Sale of bonds	1,426,596 06
Miscellaneous receipts	176,640 78
	<hr/>
	\$11,494,570 29

EXPENDITURE.

Teachers' salaries	\$5,666,045 33
Contingent expenses	1,480,097 32
Building and sites	1,474,716 24
Libraries and equipment	176,149 54
	<hr/>
	\$8,727,008 43

Cost per pupil, based on number enrolled	\$17.60
Cost per pupil, based on average daily attendance	19.21

From observations made regarding the working of the school system of California, as well as from conversations with many of the leading educators who are practically connected with the State schools, I have formulated the following propositions as worthy of consideration in any movement towards the improvement of our own system. They are:—(1) The appointment of a census marshal in each rural section; (2) The appointment of a truant officer in each municipality represented in the County Council; (3) The formation of a County Board of Education; and (4) The levying of a uniform rate over the entire county for the creation of a fund to be known as the Salary and Equipment Fund.

It should be imperative on Boards of Trustees to appoint a census marshal in each rural school section, and by Boards of Education in urban municipalities. His duties shall be:—To take annually between the——day of——, and——day of——, a census of all children under——years* of age who were residents of the section on——day of——; and to report the results of this census to the County Inspector of Schools on or before the——day of——, and to the Principal of the school in each section, who shall enter it in a special register kept for that purpose. This report shall contain the number, age, sex, color, name, and nationality of each child listed, and whether any are deaf, dumb, blind, or of weak mind, the names of the parents or guardians, their addresses, the number of children not vaccinated, and such further information as may be required by the Minister of Education. The census marshal shall have power to administer oaths when and where necessary, and shall keep a record of them.

The necessity for appointing census marshals must be apparent to every one, for our system makes provision for the education of all. This cannot be done, however, without some official record of the names and addresses of those who should attend school. The census marshal alone can furnish this information. With this knowledge at our command compulsory education can be made a reality. Without it some will reach manhood without being able either to read or write. Furthermore, an official record of the deaf, dumb, blind, or weak-minded will give those at the head of our special benevolent institutions, information about those who need their help. This alone is a strong reason for appointing them. Then we have a large foreign population coming among us, which adds largely to the necessity of having some

official means of finding the educational status of the children of these people. They are likely to become Canadian citizens, and therefore they must be educated.

The truant officer should be appointed by the County Board of Education, and shall discharge such duties as may be assigned to him by the board appointing him. Under the present law the appointment of a truancy officer is optional with boards of rural trustees. The power of appointing this officer should be vested in an independent board and not in one that is elective. It is advisable to have but one truancy officer in each municipality. Then the work will be more effectively done, since this officer will not be in too close touch with the people, and can therefore insist upon having the regulations properly enforced. With an efficient truancy officer and a careful census marshal, irregularity of attendance and parental negligence will be greatly reduced, and illiteracy will soon become a thing of the past. This office is the necessary complement to that of the census marshal.

The County Board of Education shall be composed of the Warden of the County, who shall be chairman, the Public School Inspector or Inspectors, one of whom shall be secretary, the member or members who represent the county in the Legislature, and two teachers of experience appointed by the County Council.

The powers and duties of the County Board of Education may be defined as follows:—To have the general oversight of the Public Schools of the county; to make rules and regulations for their government, subject to the approval of the Education Department; to prepare or cause to be prepared a course of study adapted to the educational needs of the county; to fix the amount of money to be raised by a uniform county rate for the salary and equipment fund; to appoint truancy officers and define their duties; and to discharge such other duties as may be required of them by the acts of the Legislature.

Under the present law County Councils appoint County Boards of Examiners. Now, if we substitute the word "Education" for the word "Examiners" and vest this board with certain powers, the questions of a uniform rate of taxation and of minimum salaries for teachers can be solved with comparative ease, for each county will have these matters largely under its own control.

The composition of this board is a matter of very great importance for on it will rest the success or failure of the county schools.

The warden has been selected as the representative of municipal affairs, the Inspector of educational affairs, the members of the Legislature, the framing of educational laws, and the teachers, the interests of the teaching profession. These boards will become the leading factors in developing the educational system of this Province and keeping it abreast of the times, both theoretically and practically.

The Salary and Equipment Fund should be placed under the charge of the County Board of Education in all rural schools, and under Boards of Education in urban municipalities. This fund shall consist of a county or urban school tax, and the various Legislative grants. The basis of apportionment should be fixed by the Education Department, and authority should be vested in all Boards of Education to fix a scale of salaries with suitable yearly increases.

To equalize the burden of taxation throughout the Province, inspectorates, or counties should be classified into first, second, or third rate, according to their ability to support schools by direct taxation. Those having the greatest wealth as shown by the assessment, should be rated as first-class, and should receive the minimum amount of Legislative aid, those whose assessment shows only a limited power of direct taxation, should be rated as second-class, and should receive an intermediate amount of Legislative aid, but considerably larger than the minimum, while those whose assessment shows that the direct tax to support a good school would be decidedly burdensome, should be rated as third-class, and should receive the maximum amount of legislative aid which in these cases should be generous. Both legislative and county grants should be increased so as to provide fully for both salaries and equipment. Trustees in rural sections should provide the amount necessary for building and contingent expenses, and should have power to grant a bonus to their teacher for efficient work done in the schoolroom, should such expenditure be sanctioned by the ratepayers at an annual or special school meeting.

AGRICULTURE IN RURAL SCHOOLS.

G. K. MILLS, B.A., INSPECTOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NORTH SIMCOE.

IN recent years there has been a breaking away from the traditions and prejudices of the past in our views of what constitutes an education and what training is really necessary in order to prepare a youth to make the best of his own abilities to promote his own wellbeing, the wellbeing of those about him, and the welfare of the state. For many years, in all civilized countries, there has been a real strife between those who rely on the bequeathments of the past and regard its education, modified as to methods, as a sufficient preparation for the present, and those who claim that our present greatly changed conditions of employment and the advancement in every department of human knowledge necessitate not only a readjustment of educational methods but a considerable change in the matter which shall constitute the information which shall be imparted to the youth.

The battle has been won for the latter and we are now in a period of reconstruction and reorganization. As a result new matter and new methods are being eagerly pressed on those responsible for the direction of public instruction. Many new ideas will be advanced and supported vigorously by the honest enthusiast. The carpet-bagger with his narrow and selfish ends in view is abroad in the land. The Wise Man, who in the majesty of his wisdom would not hesitate to scorn the Deity Himself if he should venture to neglect his advice, deigns occasionally to advance in grandiloquent language the most fanciful nothings, while the poor, bewildered teachers work faithfully along, wondering what will happen next, ever willing to do their best for the children, patiently awaiting that instruction from those from whom they have a right to expect it, but hearing frequently the fools' cry of "inefficient and incompetent teachers."

As may be expected during such a period, mistakes will be made. Human wisdom cannot avoid them. In some cases advances have been made more rapidly than proved to be expedient, some changes have been set on foot, the whole bearing of which has not been clearly seen and modifications will no doubt be made later, but when we consider the period through which we

are passing, the chaotic state of the best public opinion and the advances that have been made, we have reason for hope and little cause for complaint.

It is quite evident that the tendency of the present day in educational affairs, not only in our own country but in all progressive countries, is toward a more economic bearing in subject matter and methods. With us, this may be seen in the programme of studies issued in 1904. The geography, composition, arithmetic, and grammar, as outlined, might be termed economic geography, economic composition, economic arithmetic, and economic grammar, and the same might be said of the other subjects of the public and high school courses of study. It is very clearly shown in the changes made in arithmetic, geometry, chemistry of the high school course. The "economic" appears to be the root and branch of our future educational system and the fancifully termed "culture subjects"—if there are such things—are but grafts on this strong and vigorous tree. It seems to me that this is as it should be in any state-aided system of compulsory education. If the State is responsible for the education of its children, that education must tend to the prosperity of the State, through the intelligence, prosperity and resulting good citizenship of the individual.

As you all know it has been recognized by the educational authorities for the past forty years that instruction should be given in the principles of agriculture in our public schools. In 1871, Dr. Ryerson prepared, or had prepared, a text-book on this subject which was authorized for use in the public schools of Ontario. This was followed in 1890 by a text-book by Mills and Shaw, and later by the present text-book by James. All of these have undertaken to give instruction from a book by the aid of teachers who had received no instruction in the principles of agriculture or training in methods of teaching it, as they had in the other subjects of the school course. This cause, together with the fact that all experience, methods, and traditions of public school education bound the teacher to a purely book education, rendered progress in this very essential part of rural school work impossible. This lack of success might have been foreseen and I am afraid may still be forecast, as when the subject is not regarded by our educational authorities to be of sufficient importance to be placed on the teachers' course either as a separate department or as a substitute

for the mass—I had almost said mess—of botany and zoology required in the lower school, or in the nature study classes of the normal schools, the teachers are not to be blamed if they are without interest or enthusiasm for a subject in which they have received no instruction or training. It has been placed on the curriculum and has been treated in most of the normal schools as of less importance than paper folding, basketry, color work, and clay modelling. These are regarded as of sufficient importance to have specially trained teachers. Not so with agriculture. Is it any wonder that even the normal trained teacher regards it of less importance than the so-called “fads and frills?”

If I am correct in my view of the tendency of the times in educational affairs, we should expect the economic aspect of nature study to be very strongly emphasized, more particularly in any course prescribed for rural schools. The fundamental principle on which the science of education is based, and the one which is perhaps the most systematically disregarded is, that knowledge comes only of experience. The mind assimilates only what is related to some experience already gained. By far the largest stock of experiences and almost the only experiences of the rural child are those related to the home, the farm and the school. It follows, therefore, that these are the experiences we should use to gain admission to the mind of the child.

The nature study work, therefore, of forms I. and II. should deal with topics that arise out of the child's surroundings at home and his lessons at school. Talks on pets, the animals of the farm, and common wild animals; such observations of plant and animal life as may be made in the garden, around the farm buildings, or on the way to and from school; observations of the weather, the action of the wind, rain, snow; and talks on topics that may arise out of his school work. Such topics should be touched lightly, and according to the interest and intelligence of the class. They should be short and should vary from day to day with little apparent relation, as the pupil is young and must be reached through his fleeting interests. The object is to arouse an inquiring interest in things about him, to cultivate accuracy of observation and freedom of expression in speaking, writing and drawing.

After form II. the topics should be fewer but they should be studied more thoroughly. Several topics may be carried along at the same time, *i.e.*, one need not be exhausted before entering on

another. The pupil is older and is better able to compare, to judge, to reason from cause to effect, and to select means to reach the end which he desires. The object is now the formation of mental habits in relation to natural phenomena. Only continued and repeated observations, comparisons and interpretations will serve to concentrate the attention sufficiently on a topic to be productive of any lasting effect on the mental habits of the pupil. The topics should be such as the child has become familiar with in his everyday life at home or at school. These will be of interest to him because of the fact that while he has frequently noticed them, he has never thought of observing them closely and wondering what they mean or why they should be so. The topics should also be such as may be of service to him in his after life and thus bring profit as well as intellectual and aesthetic enjoyment from their study. For all rural pupils such topics of study are numerous and the methods of dealing with them so simple, interesting, and in the completest sense educative that the difficulty is not to find enough but to select those that are at once the best suited for the present interest of the youth and the future welfare of the man.

As the vast majority of rural pupils attend school irregularly in forms III. and IV. and drop out before completing them, the course in agriculture or nature study, if you prefer the name, should be such as will appeal to them as bringing school work more in accord with their home life, the work on the farm, and the local world in which they live. These pupils have in a great measure lost their interest in the regular school work and have become interested in the work of the farm, and we must reach them through their interest if we would be effective. I would suggest the following topics as particularly suitable to these classes, and would advise keeping the classes together as much as possible:—

The common insect pests of the house, garden, orchard and field, their life history and methods of combatting them. These might be represented by the mosquito and housefly; the tomato, cabbage and currant worm; the tent caterpillar, apple worm and aphid; grasshopper, borers, wireworm, and pea bug. Beneficial insects; injurious and beneficial birds; their habits, nesting food, color protection and adaptation to surroundings and habits of life; horticulture at home or in the school garden; soil, its composition, texture, preparation for seed, cultivation, drainage and means of conserva-

tion of moisture; seeds, the recognition of common weed, clover and grass seeds, germination, selecting of seed, planting under different conditions; the growing plant, effects of light and shade on plant growth, function of the parts, relation of roots and leaves to moisture and light, fertilization and cross-fertilization both natural and artificial, pruning, grafting, etc.; diseases of plants as scabs, blights, rots, their cause and treatment; farm animals, their breeding, feed and care.

The programme is extensive and some special training is necessary before teachers will be willing to undertake it, but with a little start and some source of guidance, an intelligent teacher can lead his class to do very valuable work along this line. We frequently hear of "inefficient and incompetent teachers." This is not true. Inefficient in some respects they may be, but the fault is ours not theirs. In our system of education a sort sifting process goes on throughout the public school; those who are bright are promoted from class to class while the slower ones lag behind and drop out. A few from each school pass the entrance examination and these are nearly always the brighter pupils. On entering the continuation class or high school this sifting process continues from form to form until the teachers' examination is reached and passed. No doubt many bright pupils drop out along the way to take up other work, or try the matriculation examination. If you ask any experienced high school man as to the relative ability of those students who take the pass matriculation examination and those who take the teachers' examination, he will have little hesitation in giving a decided opinion in favor of the future teachers. As a class we have in our teachers the brightest and most capable youth of the communities from which they came.

If this is so, how can the apparent arrested development in the case of very many teachers be accounted for? It is caused by the dwarfing mental effect of a purely book education, the exhausting nature of the work, the wretched compensation given for their services which keeps their whole attention on eking out an existence, worried about the future or the probable loss position; but most of all it is due to the fact that the position offers no promotion, and when the teacher has grown to fill it there is little or no opportunity of reaching a broader sphere where his powers would have room for exercise and development. They are overcome by

the deadly routine of the work in which they are engaged; their mental habits become fixed and they settle down in their little cells and vegetate. This is inevitable in any sphere of life which does not offer opportunities for competition and promotion with its consequent expansion of powers.

Having this material, the choice of the country, it is the fault of the education department and the inspectors if any work within the limits of the abilities of the teachers and the understanding of the pupils is not carried out effectively. It is because these teachers have not been properly taught and trained in the work we consider necessary. Let us shoulder the burden and not try to cast it where it does not belong, viz., on the overworked and underpaid public school teacher.

How can we best prepare our teachers for this work? The fact that the teachers do not usually remain long in the profession, and the apparent arrested development of many of those who do, is regarded by many as a very discouraging feature in the effort to prepare teachers for the work which it is thought the rural schools should and can do for the youth of the community who will remain on the farm. To me it only points in one direction. The future teachers must receive their instruction and training in this as in other departments of school work in the high school or continuation school and in the normal schools.

To say that the teachers shall pass the examination for entrance to the normal school, spend a year at these schools and then attend a session, or two, at the agricultural college is asking too much for a salary of from \$400 to \$450. These same teachers might be half way through the university before they obtain their Junior Teachers' certificates. It is not reasonable to expect it, and no principal or inspector would be justified in advising a pupil to enter upon a course with such an outlook. It is intended that certain selected teachers shall be given the opportunity of taking a three months' course at the agricultural college as a part of their normal school course. Those who expect to take up rural school work will receive training in elementary agriculture while those who expect to go to urban schools will be given special work along the line of manual training. This is quite satisfactory as far as it goes, but it will accomplish little or nothing for the rural schools.

Where do we find the normal school graduate? In my inspectorate only one in seven rural school teachers are graduates from the

normal school and these find their way as rapidly as possible to the village and town schools. This state of affairs will continue for many years, therefore any training given to selected normal school students at the agricultural college will be of very little service to the rural schools. I appreciate very much the efforts being made by the agricultural college to extend its influence to rural communities. It is a good work and I hope it may grow in strength until it reaches every rural home in this province, yet I believe the educational department has a greater work to do along this line than to hand over this work to the guidance of the agricultural department. Is there any reason why the elementary principles of agriculture should not form a department of high school work just as we have a commercial department? Why should not agriculture be taught in high schools with a plot of land for an outside laboratory as well as physics and chemistry with their inside laboratory? Surely the scientific principles underlying the many departments of agriculture are as educative and valuable as the lower school course in botany and zoology. We have a classical, a mathematical, a science, a modern language and a commercial specialist in our collegiates. Why not an agricultural specialist or at least a science specialist who will be expected to make some practical application of the scientific principles which he has studied, in carrying out a course in the elementary principles of agriculture, either as a separate course or as a substitute for the biology course of the lower school. The proper solution of the matter would be a specialist capable of taking the agricultural course in the summer months and a course in manual training during the winter months. All who intend to become teachers would take the course in agriculture while the boys would take manual training.

I have been science master in high schools and collegiate institutes and have taught the work of the science course with some degree of success, but I know that I could use a course in the elementary principles of agriculture to develop the mind of the pupil so as to produce an intelligent, thoughtful, and in every sense a better educated citizen than I could the course in chemistry, physics or biology. To make the course in nature study, or, as I prefer to call it, agriculture, of the most value to the rural pupil it should be taught in the lower forms of the high schools or continuation schools, where the future teachers, yet young, shall approach it as pupils.

I am aware that the government has established agricultural courses in six schools in the province, under graduates from the agricultural college. These may, and no doubt will, arouse a public interest and serve to call attention to the need and feasibility of teaching agriculture in the high schools to future teachers, and to those desiring to take the course. Organized, as it is, it will never meet the requirements of our schools for many reasons some of which are the following:—Those who have charge of these courses are not teachers. They have not the general education of our average senior teacher. They are rather agents of the agricultural college. The teaching of the agricultural course is with them, at present, but a secondary consideration, a sort of side issue. The course is not compulsory or even optional for those who intend to become teachers. While these agents may be, and no doubt are, earnest and enthusiastic in their work for agriculture, they have their attention centered on serving the farmers directly, and not on reaching the children through the schools. This may be well from the standpoint of the agricultural department but it is not what is required from the standpoint of the department of education.

It is also intended to give summer courses at the agricultural college which lead to a certificate in rural science. Again, I heartily approve, but even though the education department offers a yearly grant of \$30 to any teacher taking this course, establishing a school garden and giving instruction in the underlying principles of the work, I have very grave doubts whether it will prove successful. Teachers, more especially rural school teachers, have not the money to spend on summer courses and very many of them are too busy eking out their small salary to spare the time. Consider the case of the teacher who married shortly after obtaining his second class certificate. He is about the only male teacher who remains to us in our rural schools. He is usually an excellent teacher and the very man whom we would like to see undertake such work. Has he from \$70 to \$80 and two summer terms, besides a year's hard work to spare to obtain this certificate in Rural Science? It means at least \$150, counting loss of time, besides a year's work, and I have seen few who will undertake it. The least the Education Department should do is to defray all the expenses of the teacher while attending the summer courses, and I regard the work of so much importance that I

would strongly advocate that the Department pay the travelling expenses, the board, and at least \$1.50 per day to all teachers who will undertake to attend two summer sessions at the Agricultural College, carry on school gardening, and give instruction in the elementary principles of agriculture to the pupils of form III. and IV.

We do as much and more each year for our militia, and while we all acknowledge the necessity of expenditure for purposes of defence, I am sure the benefit to the province would more than justify the proposed expenditure. It would be a mere bagatelle each year, but only in this way will many permanent teachers be induced to attend and undertake the work. It may look like an innovation but it is not. The dominion government pays the transportation, board, and \$1 per day to teachers who take the course in military training with a view of qualifying as cadet corps instructor in high schools. Surely the results hoped for in agriculture are of as much importance. It would be a demonstration of the earnestness of the government and the importance they attach to this particular part of school work, and it would serve to convince the public of their zeal in matters relating to rural school education.

The regulations respecting school gardens ask school boards to buy one-quarter acre, to provide seeds, tools, implements, etc., to build a garden shed and to engage a teacher qualified to carry on school gardening and teach agriculture satisfactorily in order to obtain an initial grant of \$100 and a yearly grant of \$20. The grants are liberal, but they have not been taken advantage of, because teachers realize their inability to devote so much effort to one department of school work. The requirements deter them from making the effort to carry on the work even in a small way. The work called for is beyond them even though they had taken the summer courses and is out of all proportion to the other parts of the school course. In my opinion so much is neither necessary nor advisable in order to introduce and carry out very valuable work along this line. It may well be that after teachers have been at the work for some years they will be able to use profitably the full quarter acre, but the beginning must be made on a much smaller scale. A few plots four by eight feet, one for each class, is enough ground to begin with, and is as much as the average teacher can handle success-

fully at first. In the digging, cultivation, manuring and caring for the plots; in the planting of bulbs, flower and vegetable seeds; in the study of seeds, plants, flowers, weeds, visiting insects and insect pests; in the planting of shade trees, shrubs and vines around the school building and in other parts of the school grounds very many valuable lessons may be learned. Such a beginning would not discourage or paralyze the effort of the teacher and might be made to serve nearly all the purposes of the larger plot. By making this small beginning both teacher and pupil would feel that they were undertaking something they would carry out. The result would be pleasure and profit, instead of a laborious task, the ill-success of which would lead to ridicule by the farmers of the community.

In the meantime what can be done in nature study under the present conditions? It is a difficult matter and every inspector will develop it according to his views and the local conditions. I have been an inspector for about two years and a half and I have been so busy getting acquainted with the details of the work in other departments that I have not pressed this work until this year, and even yet I am proceeding slowly and dealing only with the towns. I have prevailed upon the horticultural societies of Colingwood and Barrie to distribute flower seeds free to all the pupils of these towns who care to take them home and plant them. I must say that I had no difficulty in getting these societies to do this. Those whom I approached were pleased to see an interest taken in the work and were glad of the opportunity of helping it along. It is proposed to hold a flower show in September, at which only school children will compete, and prizes will be given to all children who show flowers grown from these seeds. These prizes will largely be in the forms of bulbs which the children will plant for spring blooming. If it proves a success we hope to add vegetables next year. Printed directions are given for the preparation of the soil, the planting of the seeds, the transplanting of young plants, mulching, watering, pulling of weeds and picking of flowers. I propose outlining for the teachers' lessons that may be taken in forms II., III. and IV. in connection with the work and the growing plants, and in this way hope to do some valuable work in nature study. If I am convinced that good results can be obtained in this way I propose extending this work to the rural schools in a somewhat modified way.

In the meantime some of the rural teachers are following their own bent in nature study without let or hindrance, beyond a sympathetic inquiry and a short chat with the teacher or the pupils on the subject, during my visit. I am well aware that this lack of emphasis has led some to neglect the work altogether. They retain the name on the time-table for my edification on the occasion of my semi-annual visit, but they use the time for some other work. On the other hand I find a few of my teachers deeply interested and doing very good work. The problem with me is how to interest the teachers, as I know if I can do this the teacher will interest the children. The large majority of my teachers, as in all other inspectorates, are girls, and if they cannot be interested in the growing of flowers and vegetables, in trees, birds, wild flowers and insects, I do not know how to set about it and will give up hope until through the efforts of the education department and the agricultural college we are provided with rural teachers capable of dealing with nature study as agriculture, or with agriculture as nature study.

TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

L. K. MURTON, OSHAWA.

Gentlemen of the Trustees' Department: Introductory to the work of our Department, outlined by the programme for this convention, it now becomes my duty and privilege, as President, to address you. Before entering upon the special subject which I have chosen, allow me, while cordially greeting again those of you, the tried and true, who have been with us and shared in our labors of previous years, to offer a sincere and very hearty welcome to those delegates who now meet with us for the first time, and especially to those representing Rural School Boards or Associations of Rural School Trustes. We wish you at once to be possessed of all the ease and confidence of the home feeling, knowing that we all have equal rights under the Constitution of our Association and the by-laws of the Department, and assured that we are united by the bond of living sympathy which touches every individual in that resolute, cheery and ever hopeful band, who with a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull all together are engaged in working the long arm of the educational lever designed to raise all Ontario to a higher level of life and attainment. This is more than a figure of speech, for if education is not the instrument which the great Syracusan conceived of as adequate to raise the world; it has actually accomplished a greater work than any dreamed of by Archimedes, and has almost within the century just closed, uplifted nearly all the nations of the earth to the high and healthy plain of popular self-government, far above the low lying miasmatic levels of barbarism, human slavery, and the cruel and selfish tyrannies of despotic rule.

Now to you our brothers in this great work let us say that we do not think of educational interests as divided and antagonistic: we are unable to conceive of hostility existing among those engaged in the primary, the secondary and the higher educational work.

when the interests of these are fully and thoroughly understood. It is not our wish to educate certain parts of our fair Province and leave other parts uncared for. We believe that the Public Schools, both rural and urban, the High Schools and the Universities, are all essential to our national well being and are also essential to the success of each other.

We doubt not our conferences here will strengthen the conviction in all our minds that our watchword should be the Cornish motto, "One and All," all for each and each all for. Should one be attacked all rush to the support of the one in danger; and every one should bear a part in the support of all. Our united strength can and will accomplish much. We have already gained much by united action; let us extend its effective operation into every part of the field of educational work.

I am aware that we usually concede great latitude, and perhaps even longitude to a President's address. Possible this is because he is sometimes found to be at sea, and apparently not very clear as to his bearings; or it may be that the parliamentary precedent is followed which in the debate upon the address at the opening of a session allows a speaker to wander at his own sweet will over the whole range of politics.

That practice has much to commend it; for it generally brings to notice grievances to be redressed, and suggested improvements to be considered and discussed.

Though profoundly impressed by the lavish abundance of the harvest gathered in, through the widely ranging, and exhaustive labors of my able predecessors in office, while toiling in the educational field; yet I feel convinced that, following them, the most strenuous exertions on my part, in retraversing that field, would have been rewarded with but scant gleanings. Indeed I could not hope that any indulgent Boaz would have scattered from his sheaves to increase my ingathering.

Then again I cared not for an excursion merely to scatter bouquets, and still, less for one only enlivened by more or less well directed efforts in throwing pebbles at all that displeased me: wherefore I have sought out another way, and will ask you to favor me, for a little time with your company along it.

I am not seeking the introduction of a new subject into the school curriculum; nor am I just now about to advocate the

elimination of any already there; but having in view both the school life and the after life of the pupils, I wish to arrive at some fair appreciation of the study of history.

A clear idea of the *object* of education is essential to every intelligent discussion of the best means of attaining it.

It has been said that the object of education is to make each individual as perfect a human being as he is capable of becoming.

This is a broad generalization, and is thoroughly individualistic in its form of statement, so that it conceals rather than reveals the true aspect from the view point of the national educationist.

Herbert Spencer says, that to prepare us for complete living, is the function which education has to discharge.

This shows the benefit received by the individual; but what about the State which has given it?

I am not disposed to quarrel with either of the foregoing definitions, when properly understood and explained; but we in this Association are concerned only with education State aided and controlled.

Just here I wish to call attention to the radical difference between the theory of administering public instruction upon which the English speaking peoples of this continent have based their systems, and that which has guided European countries.

Throughout this country and the United States democratic ideas prevail, and the entire course of instruction from Public School to University has been so arranged as to form a continuous and harmonious progression; so that a pupil who drops out at any stage, knows that so far as he has gone, he has had the same training as those who go on to the end, and that if he chooses to resume his school work again, whether in the same or any other part of the country, he can take it up without disadvantage. All classes and ranks are made to pass together along, and as far as possible through, a certain uniform course calculated to develop the mind on broad liberal lines; so that as a citizen the pupil can grasp all sides of a question. Then he is at liberty to build upon this solid substructure, the trade, profession, or specialty, which he is to follow. The idea of equal opportunity to all citizens and freedom in their choice of a career, as soon as they have become sufficiently enlightened to be able to choose intelligently, is the democratic ideal.

This uniform system is calculated to break down racial differences, and class distinctions; and has a powerful unifying influence in establishing common national ideals.

In Europe, on the other hand, there are two sets of schools, both under government control, but having distinct courses of study, and running parallel with each other in point of time:

The *Primary*, covering instruction from 5 to 15 years of age, and designed to train children of the masses, manually and artistically, for the trades in store for them; that is the occupation of the child's father and grandfather in each case; and

The *Secondary*, not following on from, nor in any way growing out of, or connected with the Primary; but covering ages from 5 to 18 years, embracing a study of the classics and humanities in general, and designed to lead to the cultured professions.

This system separates people into classes almost from infancy; and its influence is to perpetuate social castes. Its tendency is wholly undemocratic, and is hostile to the spirit which rules this Continent, and which has hitherto succeeded so marvellously, in building up side by side, two great, self-governing, free nations, made up of peoples of many races, drawn from many lands, and taught within two generations to abandon all their inherited old world hatreds, jealousies, suspicions, prejudices, antipathies and hostile traditions.

All this and much more have we seen worked out in this continent, both in the United States and Canada.

The Americans frankly attribute their success to this characteristic feature, present in their school system as it is in ours.

In all our changes, and in all our discussions, let us never lose sight of this basal principle. A clear apprehension of it will save us from many a blunder.

To return after this slight deviation which I trust is not wholly a digression;

May we not say, that in a free, self-governing nation, the principal object of education, from the standpoint of the state, is to fit and incline a man to intelligently, and faithfully, perform the duties of a citizen, and to be of the greatest possible service to others as well as to himself; that *Unselfish* service, rather than selfish service, is the ideal to be held up.

Now it is conceded that almost any subject, taught so thoroughly that a pupil shall get a real *grasp* of it and *liking* for it,

before he leaves school, has an educational value; but I am claiming a very special preeminence for the subject of History, when *so* taught.

Only those who have enjoyed a liberal education, can impart a liberal education; and for the teaching of all subjects, especially History, the teacher should have a broader, deeper, richer, nobler, culture, and a wider knowledge, than that obtained from the limited course of education, called for by the curriculum, prescribed for the pupils whom he teaches. It is vitally important that he shall teach his subject with enthusiasm, and in an enlightened fashion, so as to inspire in the pupil a deep, life-long, love of the subject, which will make its continued study one of the chief joys of the leisure part of his after life.

You ask why is the study of History worthy of so much devotion. I answer: for many reasons; and first, because it includes almost everything that affects human life. We seldom teach ethics directly; and history affords the best means of inculcating broadly, and generally, morality in its widest aspect. It teaches, sometimes by example, sometimes by contrast, patriotism, brotherhood, liberty, equality, and all the things that make life noble; and it is surely necessary, and indeed urgent, that those who will exercise political power, shall be given a right conception of the march of history.

Owing to the increased social power and influence of women, it is perhaps quite as important that this training, from the study of History, shall be given to girls, as to boys. Indeed, I believe that for girls, at least, the subjects of Literature and History are by far the two best subjects on the high school programme. They should have such a live knowledge of the institutions and form of government of the country, as will give them an interest in its affairs, and enable them, if not to attain the full status of citizenship, yet to appreciate, sympathize with, and encourage by their potent influence, such of their fellow countrymen as are really striving for the attainment of high national ideals; and on the other hand, to frown down, and drive into obscurity, the ignoble and base.

I place great value upon this indirect teaching of morals through History, because the more direct teaching, through the reading and study of the family Bible, under the leadership of the parents, at home, is now little more than tradition of the fathers;

almost as obsolete as the spelling match, the quilting bee and the camp meeting. The daily papers give the most conspicuous places in their columns to highly sensational, detailed accounts of crimes and immoralities, spiced to suit the increasingly depraved tastes of a large class of readers; and if we are to class the daily press as a power that makes for good, we must now do so, with misgivings and reservations. The church, during so many ages a centre of light and a destroyer of darkness, now only touches the child life one day in the week, and then perhaps only for a few minutes, in the Sunday school; for the Church's sermons often lack the simplicity and directness needed to impress the child's mind. If, therefore, the public school teachers are not laying, well and truly, the foundations of character; pray tell me from whence will the moral and religious training come; we know that in many cases the child's home surroundings will be found most unsatisfactory; and that the public school is often the source of all the good influence in his young life.

Of course at the earlier ages, only the simplest forms of history, by way of story, anecdote, and illustration, can be worked in; but it is a subject in which children may be interested at an early age; and the interest grows as the age increases.

This study is of the highest value in encouraging and stimulating an intelligent patriotism, a pride and interest in one's own country, in its character, and in its institutions: and in evoking a wish to be of value to it. There is no sharper spur to a noble ambition, than the example of great lives; and no better means of making a man realize his responsibilities toward his own generation, and toward those that succeed it. Hence it is the duty of every country to cherish and preserve the memory of those who have done it great service; and in this connection let me remark: that for Canadian students, Stephen and Lee's great Dictionary of National Biography, and our own Makers of Canada series, are priceless treasure-houses of historical information and inspiring example.

In a country, such as ours, where the people govern, every elector should, as far as practicable, be taught to approach the problems of our own national development, as well as the problems of the great empire of which we form an integral, important and influential part, with the knowledge, judgment and sympathy produced by a historical training.

Historical study stimulates the imagination; and when the subject is properly taught, also trains the reason. It moreover gives the habit of looking at questions from more than one point of view, and of trying to understand the history of a governmental or social problem before suggesting the solution of that problem.

It has been justly said that the education of a democracy determines its duration. Our American neighbors are rather proud of proclaiming that they are engaged upon the greatest experiment in popular government that the world has ever seen. We and our sister self-governing nations of the British Empire, as well as the Motherland herself, are engaged in a similar experiment; and none of us can afford to shut our eyes to the inherent danger, necessarily involved in making such an experiment. The advancing tide of socialism, the destructive doctrines of anarchy, the theories of Utopians, and false principles of government, can only be met by educating the masses of the people. Inoculate them against social and economic error by sound training in true economic principles during the formative period of school life; and fortify them by that mental discipline which historical study gives in teaching them to examine all sides and every bearing of a question: so that they may avoid being stampeded by demagogues into hastily accepting ill-considered and untested political and social nostrums.

As *Frederick Harrison* says, "It is sheer presumption to attempt to remodel existing institutions without the least knowledge how they were formed or whence they grew; to deal with social questions without a thought how society arose; to construct a social creed without an idea of fifty creeds which have risen and vanished before."

In Ontario our law, both civil and criminal, our political institutions, our religion and our social habits and customs as well as our language and literature are all transplanted from Britain and have undergone very slight modifications in the process of acclimatization. Indeed their variations have little more than kept pace with the changes going on contemporaneously in those of the mother land. Our political connection with Britain—our racial identity with her people, our commercial ties, and above all the common origin of our language, literature, institutions and laws make the study of British History the necessary and logical start-

ing point and introduction to the study of our own:—And what nation has a nobler and more inspiring story?

There is too a continuity in British history lacking in that of many other countries. It contains no cataclysm like the French Revolution of 1789; nor has Britain been divided into 300 discordant states as was Germany in past centuries. The same national character has been preserved throughout the ages, Mediaeval, Elizabethan, Modern. The Englishman from century to century shows the same individuality, the same initiative in action, the same independence in thought and speech, the same practical sagacity, moderation, and self-control. The men who drew up Magna Charta, in 1215, were guided by the same practical wisdom, the same desire to avoid abstract questions, and to deal with proved abuses only, as the men who drew up the Petition of Right, in 1628, or the Declaration of Rights, in 1688.

The fearless and resourceful Drake, who, near the close of the sixteenth century, burned and battered and finally drove to destruction that "Invincible Armada," which Philip the II. of Spain, Lord of the Netherlands, and aspirant for the throne of France, had sent forth to bring England also under his sway, had a glorious parallel in the mighty Nelson, who, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, so signally defeated a similar design of the even more ambitious Bonaparte. The brilliant Marlborough, who, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, saved his own country from a Stuart restoration, and all Europe from the domination of that selfish despot, Louis XIV.; has his peer in the beginning of the last century when the Ward God, incarnate in the First Napoleon, ruthlessly tramped Europe under foot and struck at the heart of the British nation, only to be long baffled and finally overthrown by Wellington, the dauntless, and imperturbable, whose wary caution and grim determination again saved both his own nation and a whole continent from the grinding heel of an ambitious and unscrupulous tyrant. Britain's roll of glory for the eighteenth century includes both the great Clive, who, in the far East, rescued from benightment and misrule the might empire of India, and that ever memorable hero, the famous Wolfe, who, in the far West, wrenched from the grasp of unprogressive France that greater Empire whose Northern half alone is now prized as the very Kohinoor among all the possessions of the British Crown.

Again in our own day when a vital blow was struck at the integrity of the Empire the splendid daring of Roberts and the inflexible resolution of Kitchner bodily snatched victory from the midst of disaster.

Inspired by such a record, who will doubt that the race is still capable of producing Leaders, great men for great occasions.

Great ideals are wafted into the minds of a nation by the atmosphere of its history.

Those which our fathers have brought with them across the sea are not confined to the fields of military and naval achievements nor to the acquisition of new territory, marvelous as in this last report the record has been, thanks to England's sea power in which her supremacy has long remained unquestioned.

In social advancement and political evolution, British history shows a growth worthy of all praise; and we can trace almost every step in the rise of this great Teutonic race from the savage to the first place in the Vanguard of advancing civilization.

The savage *has no history*; all his energies are exhausted in the struggle for existence; and he has neither time nor mentality to consider his position as a social being and make a record of social advancement or retrogression. Those cut-throat Norsemen might have gone on for ages murdering and plundering and carousing among themselves and their immediate neighbors, without having made the world much the better or much the worse. But they at length chanced upon a land whose natural resources and favorable location for commercial enterprise and for ultimate national defence gave them great opportunities for regular, steady, and legitimate advancement in material wealth; and here moreover, their minds received new impulses from contact with Roman civilization. Then they began to make history. Those bold, enterprising, fearless, lawless freebooters did not come to settle down as anybody's slaves. They meant to take and hold all that was worth having; and they did so, even appropriating the religion of the Romans as soon as they had an opportunity to justly estimate its value. These very characteristics accelerated the march of history. In India fettered with its system of casts, in Egypt held down by its Hierarchy, jealously—guarding their occult lore and cryptic learning, and in China smothered with oppressive tradition, the social evolution was so slow that there appeared to be perfect stagnation; conditions remained the same from grandfather to grand-

son; and the stream was as unattractive as the dreary surface of a glacier. The vast and vacant annals of the East do not deserve the name of history. Well has Tennyson put it "Better fifty years of Europe than a cycle of Cathay."

These English; for Angles, Saxons, Danes, Norwegians, Normans, were all akin, scions of the great Teutonic stock; never wholly lost the freebooter's love of personal freedom, nor his readiness to defend it at peril of life and limb. A domineering, resolute, headstrong race, they yet had a rough respect for the law made by and established among themselves; they keenly felt the need of it to keep themselves from being robbed by one another; and every man took a deep interest in the making and enforcement of those laws, to see that no other, from the Chief or King downward, should encroach upon his own individual rights. These rights when once established were sturdily maintained, and is temporarily overridden, were from time to time reasserted.

The reverence for precedent, so characteristic of our race, was just the mental habit grown out of following unwritten tribal customs.

Ninety brief sentences contained all the written laws of England at the time of Ethelbert, who was a contemporary of the famous Roman lawgiver Justinian.

Even at the time of the Norman conquest the English system of laws and customs as of the time of *Edward the Confessor* was tenaciously retained; and these were again confirmed by the Conqueror's son, Henry I., in the "Charter of Liberties," which more than 100 years after became the basis of the Great Charter. It was in the reign of Henry II. that the "*ancient customs of the realm*" were, by the Constitutions of Clarendon, reduced to writing and defined within the limits of sixteen articles; but those sixteen articles were found to be an insuperable barrier against the attempted encroachments of the Church upon the liberties of the Nation.

Most instructive to every lover of Constitutional Government and such is, and I trust always will be, every Canadian, is the history of the mighty struggle for supremacy which from the conquest to our own day has been waged, through many phases, and with various combinations, between the people, the Barons, the Church, and the King. The wonderful system of political checks and balances which has been evolved through the fiercest contests

in the battlefield, in the Senate and in the forum and which we call the British constitution, is the wonder, the envy, and almost the despair of other nations.

We and our sister self-governing States of the Empire have received it in its integrity both by inheritance and adoption; and the kindred nation to the south of us has the most of it, in substance though modified, and we think somewhat marred, by certain variations both in form and in substance.

To a generation born to such a glorious and hardly won heritage, there is danger of a spendthrift thoughtlessness, which would permit them to undervalue this priceless possession, and perhaps to part with it for some fancied good, some shadowy socialistic or anarchical vagary.

No better safeguard against such a calamity can be found than a careful study of Britain's growth from the time when the Conqueror divided up England into feudal holdings among some 20,000 of the more polished converted pirates who had followed him in his successful raid, thus making them Barons or Lords of Manors and conferring upon them a civil and criminal jurisdiction for the maintenance of law and order within their respective holdings.

You may think the expression "Pirates" too strong, as applied to the Normans at the period of the Conquest; but they were still so called by a French writer at Rheims only some 50 or 60 years before their invasion of England. In the preceding century and a half, however, they had in some respects made more progress than their brother Vi-Kings, those Danes who had contemporaneously invaded, and obtained a settled hold in England. They had learned the French language, embraced the Christian religion, as they found it; and quickly possessed themselves of the learning and civilization of the French of that period. They became landmen, adopted and improved into a system the Feudal doctrines of France, and even acquired the use of the weapons and military tactics of the people into whose territory they had forced their way. The style of architecture which they learned in Northern Italy they improved and introduced into England, and while crime and immortality abounded and they were always lawless, except while held down by a strong ruler, it cannot be denied that they brought much of value with them into England and added strength to the nation as they became gradually absorbed into it. I may say that I referred to them as "pirates," merely to bring

out more vividly the stupendous task which the people of England had before them of welding together into a great nation these successive hordes of freebooters who had taken possession of the land and of raising themselves from the anarchy of a semi-barbarous tribal condition to the present proud position of the Mother of Parliaments, the Standard Bearer of political freedom. No one who has mastered the lessons of this great progress upward from anarchy will become a proselyte to any such revolutionary teaching as would by any possibility bring about a reversion to the original condition, or even turn backward for a time the wheels of progress.

Now in advocating the study of history, and particularly of British history, as I have done, I am not making the mistake of supposing that a mastery of the whole subject will or can be attained by a child of school age; but I am trying to show something of what treasures it has in store for those who shall, through intelligent and sympathetic teaching during their school life, be led to love the subject, and inspired to diligently apply themselves to its pursuit in after life, whether within the walls of a university, or by self-instruction and home study. Should this study be extended to the history of other lands, such as France, the United States, Germany, and to that of the earlier civilization of Greece and Rome, it will make broader minded, better citizens, more tolerant of the views of others; fuller of sympathy for every effort at betterment made by any people, any where, of whatever race or creed, readier, in fact, to adopt as a working rule in life, that fundamental truth, announced upon the areopagus at Athens by the Great Apostle to the Gentile: "God hath made of one *blood* all nations of men for to dwell on all the face of the earth."

HOW THE RURAL SCHOOLS CAN BE HELPED BY THE ONTARIO AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

S. B. MCCREADY, B.A., GUELPH.

The subject outlined in this proposition involves two premises, which may or may not be accepted as correct, viz., (1) That the Rural Schools of Ontario are in need of help; (2) That the Ontario Agricultural College can help them. For my purposes I must be allowed to assume their correctness.

To get a proper understanding of the proposals which I have to offer, a knowledge of the establishment, development, and work of the College must be had—as well as a view of the attitude of the times towards industrial education in the Public Schools.

Thirty-four years ago on the first of May the "Ontario School of Agriculture," as it was then called, began its operations at Guelph. The previous year (1873) 550 acres of land had been purchased at a cost of \$75,000 and buildings had been erected. It is needless to say that the first instructional work of 1874 was of a fragmentary character.

In the first term of 1875, however, with better organization, twenty-eight regular students received instruction. From that time on there has been a steady growth, until at the present time the regular student body (Macdonald Institute included) numbers about 360.

The school had not come into existence as a result of a popular demand by the people whom it was intended to cater to and to directly benefit. Rather was it, as Wm. Johnston, the acting Principal, records in the first year—"A case of statesmen discerning a want and striving to supply it, rather than of the people feeling a want and demanding it. It is a case of Governmental action preceding popular agitation. But if the place be rightly conducted, keeping its ultimate objects in view, all will be right."

The statesmanship that stood behind its origin was the vision of the possibility and probability of an impoverished land and the concomitant degradation of our citizenship unless our basic industry of agriculture was stirred out of old ruts and put into accord with modern scientific achievement. We had come to a place where increased harvests could not be brought about by increased acreage because most of our available land had come under cultivation. Moreover, the virgin richness of our soil had been ravished. There had to be an improved agriculture! There was need for improved seeds, improved stock, improved methods of cultivation. Older European countries, notably Germany, that had passed through our experiences, had saved their agriculture by making it a matter of education in government schools and colleges. The United States had already moved generously in the matter. Ontario could not dare to lag. These were the factors that led to the establishment of a provincial technical school of agriculture.

As in most other crises of a social or industrial nature, Education saves the day. From that time there has been steady improvement. Ontario agriculture has advanced and is advancing. Intelligence grows. The older order changeth, giving place to new. Our agriculturists as a body are more and more bringing their minds and their farm practices into accord with Science and her teachings. Wisdom grows more from day to day. The future is full of hope for still better things to be. There has been a general increase in the productivity of the land and the wealth of the country. This has been due to improved stock, improved seed, improved soil management and improved business capacity. In this improvement the Ontario Agricultural College has given, directly and indirectly, good service.

The work of the school is divided into fifteen departments. Each department has its distinct field of teaching and experimenting. The organization illustrates the many sidedness of modern farming. There are the three husbandry departments, so-called, Field, Animal and Dairy; the biological departments of Botany, Entomology, Bacteriology, the Physical and Chemical Departments, the Horticultural, Forestry and Poultry Departments, the English and Mechanical Departments, the Domestic Science and Nature Study Departments. Each has its distinct field of work and its own teaching force. There is a corps of forty-four persons engaged in instructing or investigating or both, and in some of the departments quite large staffs of trained men are engaged in the field or farm operations.

Its efforts and influence permeates every educational measure that concerns the rural citizenship. Generally it leads, always it helps. There is first the regular college instruction from the middle of September to the middle of the following April. There are short courses in Live Stock Judging, Seed Selecting, Poultry Keeping, Dairying, Fruit, and Vegetable Growing, Manual Training, Nature Study, Domestic Science. There are over 30,000 visitors in June to be entertained and instructed. There are over 10,000 outside experimenters connected with the College work. There are numerous special conventions of Fruit Growers, Vegetable Growers, Bakers, Teachers, Legislators, Newspaper Men, Farmers' Institute Workers, etc. There is an increasing correspondence school system growing up as an important part of the work of each department. The members of the staff share in out-

side conventions, Farmers' and Women's Institute meetings; they act as judges at fairs and give instruction in outside short courses.

It is not pretended that other influences have not been operative in the uplift as well as the college. The Dominion Government has done its part well. The press has been of great service. The agricultural and horticultural societies and Farmers' Institutes have helped. But under and around all these has been the College. It is bone and sinew, and blood and flesh and *brains* with all these and with the country people.

It may be acknowledged then that the Ontario Agricultural College has vindicated the judgment of those who brought it into existence. It seems to be generally accepted amongst the farmers as deserving encouragement and support. It is accorded credit for being progressive, approachable, helpful. It is only in recent years, however, that this position has been attained. There has been almost thirty years of struggle against prejudice, misunderstanding and ignorance, before this vindication has been reached. Doubtless the school from its side mirrors the agricultural genius of Ontario. But it is none the less to its credit for reflecting so clearly.

But we have not yet reached the place where we may stop to rest. Far from it! We are only within a remote sight of our possibilities. A single reference to the records of grain production in the Province will make this clear. The average yield per acre throughout the province for barley during the past 25 years was 27.6 bushels and for oats 36.2 bushels. During the last 18 years the average of the best four varieties of barley in the experimental plots at the College was 70.9, 64.3, 60, 59.4, respectively, and for the four best varieties of oats 88.6, 87.5, 76.4, 71.3 bushels, respectively. What makes the difference? Not better soil, nor richer manuring, not better care of the crop, but chiefly higher intelligence in working the land and selecting the seed grain. We cannot expect equal attainment on every farm in Ontario. We may, however, look forward to a general raising of the average. It may be measured in increased yield per acre if you will; it may also be measured in terms of increased intelligence due to education.

The foundations have been laid for future building. We must rear our structure. Education advances from above downwards. The College has won an established place. It has shaped out for

itself a field of education and influence for the Province at large. But it has done its work with the adult part of the population. The time has come for directing its instruction down to the children in the schools. We are at the beginning of another similar educational movement. History is repeating itself. Similar work, modified for secondary education, is on trial in six high school agricultural departments. Will it succeed? Will it take many years to establish itself. As in the case of the College it has come from without and not from within. There has been no demand for this secondary education from the farmers. Indeed so far as the first year's experimenting goes, much prejudice or unconcern manifests itself from those whom it is primarily intended to benefit. The attendance in the classes is small. Yet the propaganda has to be made and the field cleared. There can be little question of the certainty of success. Ontario will work out for itself in the immediate years to come a system of secondary agricultural education. It will form an important chapter in the educational history of our province. There will have to be many new adjustments to make it fit into our present school system. But it will be done. Our Departments of Education and Agriculture are sympathetic one to the other and co-operating. Our educational authorities aim to adjust the education of our youth along industrial lines. This is Ontario's immediate educational problem.

But along side of the experiment in secondary education there is a movement already past the first stages of experiment. For the past four years the College has been training special teachers for country schools. The work is now regularly organized and fitted into the College work. *The special teacher for the country school*, that is what elementary agriculture is to mean. It is the outcome of the Nature Study movement. It is the bringing of the accumulations of science and fitting them naturally into the instruction of children. It is educating children in terms of their environment. There have been only a few teachers so trained. But this few is here and there demonstrating the work successfully. There must be more such teachers! It is a question of prepared teachers. We are past that stage where it was thought that all that was needed was to put a book into the hands of teachers and pupils and that the day would be won.

Where is this teacher to come from? How is he to be prepared? In time he will come from our agricultural continuation

schools and our agricultural high schools. But until these develop into a working place in our school system, they will of necessity be obliged to come to Guelph for their training. The College is the only place in this province where a full view of the meaning of agriculture can be had. He will be prepared (I like to speak of the rural school teacher as "he," although I know it is a pleasant fallacy) by going from department to department, by observing and experimenting, by doing things himself and seeing others do them, by questioning those who are trained by experience to answer questions. He will not become a specialist, he will become a generalist. He will learn that there are inter-relationships between farm animals, farm crops, soils, weather, weeds and chemistry. If he afterwards comes to teach agriculture through a school garden, he will see more in it than digging, hoeing, seeding, and harvesting. If he doesn't teach through a school garden, he may still interpret country life to country dwellers in new lights and in new ways.

The Ontario Agricultural College can best help the rural schools by training their teachers. And until such teachers are so trained, the rural schools will not have the best possible teachers. The solution of this part of the rural school problem lies with the rural school trustees and the people who put the education of their children into their trust. It is to be hoped that the trustees may realize this point. *They may have these teachers if they ask for them.* The plans for providing them such have been in operation for four years at the Ontario Agricultural College. We are giving special courses to rural teachers in School Gardening and Elementary Agriculture. As a matter of fact only a very, very small proportion of our six thousand rural teachers have come for the work. Most of them of course do not know about it; many who do cannot afford it. Few get encouragement to prosecute the study. But the onus of undertaking this should not be on the poor teacher. The trustees are at least equally concerned in the matter. They might profitably share in the expenses of such an advancement and encourage the teachers to attend. From our 6,000 rural teachers, there might reasonably be a class of 100 at the coming July session. The Education Department is in hearty accord with the scheme and offers to teachers who take out a certificate and teach elementary agriculture through a school garden an extra grant of \$30.00 a year. If it is to be along these lines

that rural schools are to be bettered in Ontario (and most people who think on the matter seriously, think it is) the fault lies with the country people themselves if they are not so bettered. For the Agriculture Department is meeting the condition by offering to train the teachers; the Education Department is offering substantial encouragement to teachers and trustees to go ahead, and the teachers (faithful servants) they are willing to do what their masters (the people) expect and ask them to do.

It is only fair to explain some of the limitations of the scheme. It is not intended that every country school in the province is to have an Ontario Agricultural College joined to it. It is not intended that the teachers who spend a few weeks or months with us will become trained farmers and be ready to give expert advice, (asked or unasked), to the neighborhood. But it is expected—and the expectation is based on experience—that such teachers will be a part of the fitness of things in country life and its activities. It does not mean that the school will give its chief concern to technical agriculture. Far from that! There will still be the Arithmetic and Grammar, the Reading and Spelling, the Geography and History. But through all these there will be sympathetic and natural adjustments with the life the child is living, and the living the child is to make after school days are passed. This is the agriculture for Rural Schools.

Ontario is not isolated in its endeavors. The movement is under way in the United States as well. They have probably gone ahead of us in many lines of educational effort, but it is to be doubted whether they have in Agriculture. Their schools of Mechanic Arts and Manual Training surpass ours in numbers and equipment. They do not lead in the adaptations of agricultural teaching in the schools. They are seeking liberal provision, however, for the movement. The Davis Bill, introduced in the last Congress, gives \$800,000 of Federal money available July 1st, 1908, to the State and Territorial Normal Schools, for the purpose of training teachers for instructing in Mechanic Arts and home economics in the urban schools and agriculture and home economics in the country schools. Our Federal Government is yet to show its practical interest in this connection. The beginning of Ontario's movement in this matter is already arranged for. Commencing April 1st, 1908, selected teachers from the Normal Schools are to take three-month courses in Guelph—those for the

country schools in agriculture, and those for urban schools in Mechanic Arts. This is part of their Normal training. The adoption of this plan makes operative two new principles, viz., (1) That the Public School must concern itself with the industrial concerns of the State and its industrial workers; and (2) That for this, teachers must be specially trained.

The following summarizes the plans of the Ontario Agricultural College for helping the Rural Schools in Ontario:—

1. *By training the teachers: The crux of the matter lies here. Without trained teachers there is little chance of general advancement. This is the line of attacking the problem in the United States and elsewhere. It must be ours. The College has been regularly engaged in this work for four years. But only a small beginning has been made. We want to reach a much larger proportion of the 6,000 rural teachers in Ontario. There will be a four-weeks' course this coming July and teachers who follow up the work and undertake gardens at their schools will receive a Teacher's Certificate in Agriculture and be entitled to the special grant of \$30.00. In the spring of 1909 regular three-month courses will be instituted, and the expenses of teachers in attendance will be paid. In the course of a few years, every township or village Continuation School should have a trained teacher representing the work of the Collège.*

2. *By offering the assistance of College instructors to teachers at their local conventions or by taking charge of their association meetings at the College. During the past four years about twenty-five conventions, attended by over 3,000 teachers, have been held at the College. And generally speaking, some one of the College staff is available at conventions for lectures in horticulture, improvement of school grounds, nature study, school gardening, or agriculture.*

3. *By helping to divert the educational trend that has prevailed in rural schools from the clerical or professional ideals of the urban schools to the industrial possibilities of the farmer's calling. For this, it suggests that a picture of the Ontario Farmer's University, as the College has been called, might be given a place of honor on the walls of the rural schools. Copies of such a picture may be had on application at the College. As pictures*

are said to influence character such a picture may serve in fixing an ideal, or developing a tendency in the impressionable days of youth.

4. *By taking direct charge of organized classes of the senior pupils of country schools and helping them to a profitable day's sight-seeing at the College.* During the month of June, the College is visited each year by more than 30,000 excursionists. Amongst them are many school children. If the teachers or trustees undertake to arrange for the children's being kept together as a party, arrangements will be made to instruct them after the same plan as their fathers and brothers are. This offer has been made for the past few years but, up to the present, has not been acted upon for lack of coherence between those concerned.

5. *By extending the services and the hospitality of the College to our rural trustees.* It is hoped that the County Rural Trustee Associations (from which much good to the rural schools is expected) will naturally come to make the College its convention centre. There is no more suitable place for getting suggestions and help. The Macdonald Consolidated School is in reality an adjunct of the College and although it may not be generally known, it is working in its own way and demonstrating the solutions of some of the hard problems of rural education.

6. *By organizing conferences and short courses of instruction for the Public School Inspectors whose work is largely in rural schools.* If it is important to have rural teachers specially trained for this new work of educating children in terms of their environment which the times impose upon them, it is just as important that those who superintend this work should be properly trained, so that they may be wise leaders and overseers. There is no place where they can so well secure an insight into the means of improving rural conditions and operations.

7. *By giving short courses of instruction to the science teachers in our High Schools and Continuation Classes.* This plan would soon make its influence felt in the country schools as most of the rural teachers receive their training in these schools. The teaching of Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Geology might then adapt itself, in a measure at least, to such practical considerations as the growing of plants, working of soils, using of fertilizers, destroying of insects, etc., and be none the less good science teaching therefor.

8. *By having all the publications of the College put into the school libraries and the pupils directed to their use as references.* The Ontario Agricultural College Review—the official College magazine published in ten numbers at a subscription price of 50 cents a year—should be in every rural school for reference and circulation. It would aid materially in fixing ideals and directing youthful incentives. The College Annual Reports are filled with information on experimental work in field, garden, stable and dairy, with which no progressive farmer can afford to be unacquainted. The special Bulletins, which are published from time to time, are prepared with the sole aim of educating the practical farmer, fruit-grower, cheese maker, *et al.*

Indeed this question of training the citizen to make proper and full use of governmental publications deserves an important place amongst the other offices of state schools. The state (The Ontario Department of Agriculture) aims to educate its citizens industrially by means of freely distributed publications. What fraction of its effort is effective? Certainly not so much as there should be. Let the schools help; it is a very important phase of the teaching of elementary agriculture. The inspectors might see that they were properly kept in the library and encourage their proper use.

9. *By incorporating into the school work in Nature Study or Elementary Agriculture, some of the experiments conducted by the Experimental Union.* During the present season, there will be over 10,000 experimenters carrying on experiments in Ontario farms and gardens under the direction of officers of the College. These will include tests of field crops, fertilizers, vegetables, fruits; experiments in soils, legume inoculation, and poultry raising. Besides, seedling trees may be had of the Forestry Department for wind breaks and adornment of the grounds. The rural schools of the province are especially invited to this co-operative work. If they cannot undertake them in their own school gardens, it will not be difficult to arrange with a friendly farmer to undertake the experiment in an adjacent field. It can be used by the school as their own experiment to observe and report on. This important educational organization has been making its influence felt amongst our adult population. Its position is now assured and its work known. The time has come for using it in the school for the training of youth.

10. *By the teachers using the College as a Correspondence School and training the children to do the same.* The answering of enquiries is a very extensive and regular line of College instruction. Every department is more or less extensively engaged in it. The expense of postage is willingly met by the Government in this informal educational work. Any enquiry addressed to the College will find the proper source of information. Enumeration of some of the interests involved might make this more clear. Questions regarding crops, rotations, the best varieties of grain to sow, may be asked of the Agricultural Department; regarding injurious insects and spraying, of the Entomological Department; regarding suspicious diseases, bad water, infected milk, etc., of the Bacteriological Department; regarding drainage, protection against lightning, soil analysis, etc., of the Physical Department; regarding adulterations of food, flour making, qualities of wheat, analysis of fertilizers, spraying-compounds, etc., of the Chemical Department; regarding the laying out of school grounds, the cultivation of flowers, vegetables, and fruits, of the Horticultural Department; regarding plant diseases, weeds, weed seeds, etc., of the Botanical Department; regarding school gardening and nature study, the Nature Study Department; regarding poultry, of the Poultry Department; regarding Live Stock, of the Animal Husbandry Department; regarding milk, cheese or butter matters, of the Dairy Department; regarding farm machinery, of the Mechanical Department.

12. *By having at least the senior pupils in the schools come into touch with the College instructors in their outside work in surveying for drainage or lecturing at Farmers' Institute meetings.* The Physics Department sends out men to plot farm drainage schemes. Where such work is carried on near a school, have the children see it done. The agricultural representatives in the Agricultural High Schools will be found available sometimes for a lesson in the school. Their work takes them into the country schools.

To sum up:—

The welfare and progress of the State has its foundations in an educated and intelligent citizenship.

The basic industry in Ontario is Agriculture; there is also a great new Ontario to be developed agriculturally.

It is necessary that Old Ontario's agriculture be still more improved; it is no less necessary that New Ontario's agriculture be along safe lines, avoiding the mistakes of the older parts.

The workers in this basic industry are educated in the rural schools.

These schools are not adequately meeting the necessity of the State in educating our youth in terms of future life activities.

The failure in this respect lies in an untrained body of teachers and a rural population more or less indifferent to progress.

The former must be trained; the latter must be roused to interest.

The Ontario Agricultural College is vitally concerned in the cause.

It offers its best offices in the matter.

It hopes that the people whom it serves may use it to the full extent. It feels that it will be good for the College. It knows that it will be good for the people.

TRUANCY AND AN EFFECTIVE SCHOOL ATTENDANCE ACT.

J. E. FAREWELL, K.C., LL.B., WHITBY.

This question has more than once claimed the attention and received the consideration of this Association, particularly in the year 1900, when the question was discussed at length, and a resolution in favor of allowing School Boards to appoint Truant Officers where the Police Commissioners of cities and Municipal Councilors of towns and villages had not done so, was carried.

Is the question still of sufficient importance to warrant a further discussion?

Not long ago, it was ascertained that nearly one-third of the revenue of this Province was applied in the apprehending conviction and detention of criminals, and in the relief of those mentally and physically afflicted—it was also found that while forty million dollars were annually expended in the common school education of children in Great Britain, fifty millions of dollars were spent in taking care of criminals, who were in all probability at some time,

children. About the same period it was found in the United States that in seventeen of the largest and most populous states, there were eight times as many criminals came from a certain number of the illiterate class as came from a like number of the literate class. In Britain it was found that about fifteen dollars a year was spent towards educating each child, but as soon as the child graduated into the criminal class he cost the country two hundred dollars a year. Is the ounce of preventative better than a pound of cure? Is the taxpayer interested in this?

Is there any connection between regularity of school attendance and non-attendance as to the proportion of crime in a country?

In a series of ten years after the establishment of school boards, the school attendance of Britain *doubled*, and the prisons were reduced from one hundred and thirty-six to seventy-nine. In 1870, the commencement of the above period, the children attending Public Schools numbered only one million, six hundred and ninety-three thousand, and there were in the prisons and gaols, twenty-nine thousand prisoners. In 1899, the school attendance amounted to five million six hundred and sixty thousand, and the prisoners in custody were reduced to seventeen thousand, and the number of prisons had been still further reduced by ten, and during this period the population of Britain had been *increased* by over a million. These figures seem to show that there *is* a close relation existing between truancy and crime, and the importance of keeping the youngsters at school is put beyond question. From the Parliamentary Year Book, of 1896, it appears that in Ontario, in 1871, there were one million three hundred and eighty-eight thousand two hundred and sixty-five persons of school age, and that of these, three hundred and seventy-nine thousand five hundred and eighty-six attended school. Thirty years later (1901) the number of school age was one million nine hundred and fifty-eight thousand three hundred and sixty-five, while the number at school was only three hundred and eighty-two thousand one hundred and seventy-eight, that is, in 1901, there were five hundred and seventy thousand one hundred and ten more people of school age than there were thirty years before, yet there were only two thousand five hundred and ninety-two more attended school, and it further appears that in 1881, twenty years ago, there were twenty thousand and eighty-seven more persons attending school than in 1901.

If these statistics are at all reliable, it is high time there was an *Effective Truancy Act*, and it is also about time that some persons should make it their business to see that the Act was made *effective*.

If the educational statistics are not strictly accurate, I think it may be assumed that the criminal statistics are horribly accurate. These show that between 1885 and 1905, there were fourteen thousand three hundred and fifty-five boys under sixteen years of age convicted of indictable offences, and eight thousand five hundred and thirteen of these were Ontario boys. During this period there were six hundred and seventy-six girls under sixteen years of age convicted of indictable offences, and three hundred and seventy-six, being more than half the whole number, were Ontario girls. There were during this same period sixteen thousand eight hundred and twenty-eight boys, between sixteen and twenty-one years of age, and of these nine thousand four hundred and fifty-five were Ontario boys. Fourteen hundred and twenty-one girls between sixteen and twenty-one years were convicted on indictable offences during the same period, and eight hundred and seventy-two of these were Ontario girls.

Ontario quota was seventeen thousand nine hundred and seventy-eight males and twelve hundred and forty-nine females, all under twenty-one years of age, and recruited for the Canadian Criminal army. It must be remembered that large proportions of crimes are not detected, and if detected, are not prosecuted, where young persons are concerned. Besides this there is a very much larger number of offences of a criminal nature which are not indictable offences, but are punished by summary convictions, and do not appear in the above estimate. Does it not seem that this Province, "Ontario the good," may be improved, and is it time that some one was getting busy about this matter, and if so, how shall this Truancy Act be enforced? Very often the police are given the job to save expense. this should never be done, if it can be avoided. The longer the boy can be kept out of the hands of the police and the constables, the better for all concerned. If a man can be found, who can manage to make the truant think he is his friend, and that he is looking after him because he is *interested* in him, that is the person we want. He should know, at least twice a week, if boys are playing truant. Our Provincial Act provides for a report by the Trustees to the truant officer twice a year. Some one

must have laid awake nights to have devised this provision. The truant officer should be one who knows where truants most do congregate.

The Superintendent for Schools in the State of New York has very well said, "The duties of truant officers, call for the exercise of good judgment and delicacy of treatment, it is easy to make the law obnoxious and even tyrannical by inconsiderate action and harsh intpretation of their duty. Officers should bear in mind that every child is a ward of the State in an educational sense, and not to be treated as a criminal because he is a truant. In fact, there are few of us who at some time or other did not feel strongly inclined to be truants. The alternative of hard work will often effect a cure. Tradition reports that John Adams, second President of the United States, took kindly to the Latin Grammar after two days' work digging in a ditch.

You, sir, as a Police Magistrate, and I frequently, as a Public Prosecutor, have had occasion to notice the close connection between truancy and crime.

School Boards have, I fear, been accustomed to take this truancy matter up when there was nothing else to talk about. If the figures I have cited are anything like correct, now is the time to talk about this matter, and to *commence* work upon it, and continue the work until the Act is made effective. The good people of the Province are surely paying enough good money to entitle them to require that the Public Schools shall be made available for those who need them most.

RURAL SCHOOL TRUSTEE ASSOCIATIONS AND PRESENT CONDITIONS.

J. J. MORRISON, ARTHUR.

The immediate cause that evolved the Rural Trustee Association was the amendments to the Public School Act of 1906.

These amendments were so objectionable to the rural trustee, so unlooked for, and yet gave them such a stinging rebuke that they sprang from the lethargy of years into active life and vitality, seeking for a means of redress.

Eager discussion ensued wherever a few trustees or ratepayers met together, and the fire of discontent burned brightly. Their perceptions quickened by angry impulses grasped the ideas as never before; a new era among rural trustees was ushered in. The necessity for co-operation against objectionable Legislation thrust itself upon them, but the means of giving expression to that communion of thought, and of impressing it upon the Department of Education was not at hand. Their lone and unorganized condition dawned upon them and the conception of an Association soon materialized into a live energetic organization, willing and determined to grapple with all questions that affect us as trustees of that most vital institution of our Democracy, the public education of our children.

The usefulness of this institution born of necessity, and from our own desires, is manifold; its constitution is preeminently democratic, thus enabling it to give the consolidated opinion and desires of the great body of the users and supporters of our rural schools. It will receive, and modify or exemplify, as the case may be, all questions whether of grievance or improvement in our system from the standpoint of rural requirements, and bring the same before the notice of our representatives upon the Advisory Council. It will put such questions in their desired form or destroy them if undesirable. It will give a direct, and easy way of educative power from the Department of Education to the trustees, through their Inspectors.

It will form an educative medium for trustees hitherto unthought of, that will eventually place the rural schools upon a very much higher plane than at present. It will afford an opportunity for interchange of ideas that will tone down verdant proclivities, or develop partially conceived modes of improvement, and will have the effect of consolidating the rural trustees into a body of useful public servants.

The Associations are not waiting for employment, the work before them is urgent, they are fully conscious that the rural schools are not accomplishing all that they are instituted for, or that they performed a few decades ago. We are anxious to bring about a condition in our schools that will tend to secure an education less theoretical and more practical; an education that will secure the expansion of the human faculties and the enlightenment of the understanding, that will embrace the discipline and self-restrain-

ing power that marks the elevation of the enlightened mind. To broaden and quicken the intellectual faculties, to liberate the power of thought, and give it desire for freedom of action, untrammelled by the conventional and established usages of public opinion, to promote an individuality founded upon the endowments of nature, but cultured by the acquired knowledge of those that preceded us in this phenomena of human existence; an education that will tend to the stability of moral character, personal integrity and good citizenship, that will naturally lead to the elevation of public sentiment to a point where our public men will consider only the best interests of our people. We feel that the proclivities of our youth are extravagance, disrespect to age, irreverence for venerable institutions, and national usages, lack of general knowledge when leaving school, unfitness for the avocations of life, from the standpoint of efficient education, and the application of it to the requirements of life. Indifference and disrespect towards our greatest heritage, the franchise and the growing lack of indignation at public wrongdoing.

We are not the first to make these charges, but we desire to place the cause where it should rest, and not permit the rural trustee to be the scapegoat for a condition he did not create. The Government and leading educationalists say this condition was brought about by the miserable salaries paid to teachers by rural trustees, causing teachers to leave the profession as soon as possible, and fostering an influx of young, immature and inexperienced teachers to take their places. While I admit that experienced teachers do not remain long in the profession, other causes than salary figure in their exit, and that young and immature teachers are in abundance. It is not the low salaries that brought this about, nor the rural trustees that were accountable for the low salaries, the fact was that the plentiful supply of teachers underbidding each other, caused the downward tendencies in salaries, a situation that was aggravated by Inspectors granting permits, and this condition, although condemned by the Department of Education, was aggravated lately by the Department, rushing through a lot of under-age students at the Model Schools. The Department of Education had the power to control the salaries by limiting the number of teachers just as it had the power to limit the teachers by increasing the standard of qualification. The cause certainly does not lie at the door of the rural trustee, so ✓

we must first seek the cause of the youthful teachers being in possession of the situation, licensed by the Department of Education to perform certain duties, that the Department now state they are unqualified to perform.

The still prevailing conditions that tend to conduce this situation is, I think, to be found in the Entrance Examination to the High School, and the uses that institution is put to, toward the production of immature teachers. The Entrance Examination has been for long enough the Cairn that marks the stopping place of the rural scholar. It has become the place where the roads divide, and the youthful student either turns to the pursuits of manual labor, agriculture or mechanical, or passes in to the High School with a view to entering some of the professions, the cost of which is considerable, and it becomes incumbent upon the student to do something as soon as possible, to augment the funds that have been so far supplied by the parents, very often with hardship to themselves, and unfairness to the rest of the family.

Teaching offers the best advantages to do this; youth and inexperience are no barriers: Entrance Examinations are so arranged in method and requirements, that children of almost tender years can qualify for the High School, and are thus taken from home, and from parental guidance, and are hurried on to take advantage of a lax qualifying license to be instructors of our more youthful children. To even still more aggravate this mockery of Education, The whole attention of the school training is centered upon this Entrance Examination. It is used as a standard of proficiency, and as a mark of genuine ability in a teacher to rush through as many as possible, unheeding the higher ideals of education, and often the very essentials and resorting to the most narrow forms of cramming, in fact, many teachers have been in the habit of supplying the examination papers of several years previous to their entrance class at a small fee, and drilling them on these to the loss of many other more useful studies, and to the partial neglect of the rest of the scholars. Children not intending to become teachers, or to enter any of the professions, have ignorantly accepted this examination as a mark of proficiency, at which to leave school, and either help their parents at home or learn a trade. Thus, they have been turned adrift, thinking that they possessed a fair education, when in reality, they only possessed the husks of enlightenment, when the dormant elements of their individuality were

undeveloped, and the possibility of producing a broad-minded intelligent and capable citizen lost.

Is it any wonder that the generations are becoming more light and flippant, that great minds are not springing up among us, that boodlers, and opportunists are in abundance, and often occupy honored places, that national institutions regarding the freedom of our citizenship, that should be as sacredly guarded as we would guard our homes, seem to be valueless to those that have benefited most by them. While a mock patriotism superficial and conventional stalks boldly in our midst.

The situation is a critical one for an embryo nation like ourselves to occupy, and savors well to lead us to folly and premature decay, if a more wholesome sentiment does not soon prevail, which must certainly be born of the school. To remedy this situation we must start where the wrong began, and proceed to remodel our system, remembering that we have long since passed through that stage of national evolution when coercion can be practically applied to the body politic. That although we are the rural mediocrity, it is from our ranks that the effulgence of freedom has ever sprung, that our schools are as dear to us as our homes, and that all that is necessary to bring about better conditions is reasonable enlightenment. We are conscious that the Entrance Examination to our High Schools, as at present used, is wrong; that the High School is performing work that ought to be done in our Public Schools. That the curriculum should be remodelled, striking out considerable that is more ornamental than useful, giving prominence in our readers to useful knowledge that will not be acquired otherwise. The essentials of a practical business education, that at present is so much needed upon the farm, and will tend to elevate those that follow the agricultural profession. Teachers should be, at least, twenty years of age before receiving certificates of qualification. That proper training and careful selection of teachers should be thoroughly conducted by the Department of Education; that the cost of training teachers in Normal Schools should be borne by the Government. That good salaries to teachers should be encouraged by the Government, giving a still higher salary grant, and that rural trustees get a fair representation upon the Advisory Council of Education. At present it is a mere mockery of justice, and will only lead to friction and discontent. Surely those that provide the material for the schools and the finances that are

needed to continue them, are entitled to representation upon the board of management. That rural trustee Associations should become a part of our educational system; that every Inspectorate must have its Association, and that all trustee boards are members *ipso facto*, and that at least one trustee from each board must attend the annual meeting of the Association, thus insuring the usefulness of the Association as an educator for the trustees, and that the Inspector always attend the annual meeting of the Association. By this means the various parts of our educational system will become united, and assimilation of thought and purpose will ensue, and the whole machine, instead of being a disjointed concern, causing friction and loss of power and usefulness, will become an automatic harmonious useful institution for the promotion of the highest principles that mark the progress of our civilization, and the much needed revision of our school law, as described by Prof. Goldwin Smith, as at present being hardly a congruous part of our constitution, will quietly adjust itself to requirements, and the humble rural trustee will soon become oblivious that the goad stick of abuse ever excited him to fury.

The increased expenditure brought about by these changes would naturally be considerable, but surely public education of the population both old and young, is worthy of expenditure, when vast sums of money are given away in bounties, bonuses, and subsidies to private corporations, when such a source of revenue as we would derive from the equalization of railway taxation is allowed to lie in abeyance, while vile insinuations are hurled at the penury of the rural taxpayer for venturing suggestions concerning public expenditure, and taxation, although they pay \$3 to \$1 as compared with great corporations, and do not go begging for public assistance although forced to run a handicapped race. Surely we are perfectly justifiable in demanding that public education receive the benefit of the revenues that would accrue from the politic management of our Provincial resources.

CITIZEN-MAKING: THE MISSION OF THE SCHOOL.

J. G. ELLIOTT, KINGSTON.

Environment is a potent element in character making and character enters into the citizenship we develop. Environment is,

of course, but one element, and yet it has possibly the first place. Ideals also enter into the formation of character and citizenship. What then are the environments of our boys and girls? What are the ideals set before them? If we can make these two premises stand in the forefront in the growth of education in our rising generation we will have done much in developing a citizenship that will stand the test in every crisis. If we can school the Dominion's boys and girls in wholesome honesty, courage and fidelity and with consciences quick to discern the right and do it we need not fear that the advancement of our homeland will be but upward and forward. Every school trustee, every teacher, every parent, should aim to surround the growing youths with all that is pure and good and true; to give them a zest for the real and precious things of life, aspirations for the noblest and highest, and if we can in the schools give the uplift for the abiding and eternal, there will follow that right living which exalteth a nation. We have the opportunity to do it in this free land; we must strike hard to save our children for the best and purest, since the purient and vile in life, in character and in outlook is pressing hard upon us in these fitful times. Never before have we, as Canadians, had such forces of evil to face, to conquer, or subdue. On every hand the insidious growth of greed, of spoil, of commercial dishonesty, of political knavery is apparent. To-day, and with the coming generation, must the seed be sown, so that the conflict to be waged against these evils will be won and brighter, happier and sweeter days will be theirs in which to swing this Dominion into the glorious circle of the coming nations.

Trustee, are you in line?

Teacher, are you ready to sacrifice yourself for the future of the nation?

This is a time for Spartan courage.

THE VALUE OF IDEALS.

Let me ask if you have ever tried to measure or value an ideal in life. Test it in a home of wealth and apparent refinement. The son is dissipated, worthless, one in whom all hope of reform is lost. What would not the father give to have his son enthroned in all the majesty of pure manhood? This concrete illustration gives the worth of an ideal, the measure of the difference between

that which is noble and ignoble. It is just as necessary to set before the children the ideals of truthfulness, honesty, prudence, chastity, generosity, gratitude, temperance and industry—the best things in citizen making—as it is to teach them to read or to calculate. But are these things as carefully taught as they should be? Do we not too often expect the youth to grasp moral problems, subtle and delicate, by infrequent and casual mention?

We expect him to love to do the right, when we know from our own experience that it often goes contrary to our own interests and our own wishes; and that the most passionate and intelligent teaching that we can give him will be needed, before an average child will so perceive the beauty of the right that he will follow it “to his own hurt, and change not,” if the emergency so demanded.

It is most important that children grow up with ideals, for they are among the few permanent possessions which the world knows. If you give a child bread he will hunger again; if you give him clothes he will wear them out, but give him an ideal, and it will permeate and ennoble his whole life. This is a world of change. A man may make plans but circumstances will change them. Ambitions are turned aside by circumstances, but an ideal dominates one's life, determines his character and fixes for him a place in the community.

BEST OF TEACHERS NEEDED.

What must we expect of the trustees? That they realize the task before them and set diligently to do it. We must have the best for our children. The best is demanded in every pursuit of life. The farmer must have the best machinery, the best stock, the best methods of husbandry; he pays well for it, for he sees profit ahead. The merchant demands the most modern equipment, the most complete system for quick transportation and ready sale, and the most competent help; he pays well for it, for he sees advantages ahead. The factory demands the brightest minds, the choicest mechanism, the most skillful workmen; the owner sees enrichment through these things. Why not, then, as trustees, see that the best of teachers fill our schools, men of worth and standing, women of acuteness, gentleness and devotion, and all zealous and alert to make the ideals and environment surrounding the boys

and girls, the best the community can give. The books, the games, the language, the relationships, all tending to develop that loving, courageous, true citizenship, aspiring upwards always and making the commonest things of life assume dignity and grace. This will cost money; but are our boys and girls of less account than houses, or farms, or merchandise, or commerce? We trow not. We have been going along the narrow, meagre line long enough; the best is the cheapest, whether in school or store. A Canadian writer has wisely said:—

“No people ever laid their plans with more certain outlook of success than the Canadian people are towards national suicide in underestimating the value of well-trained teachers, and under paying them for their services.

“The only goal worth while is to have the children better than their ancestors were, and their outlook brighter and clearer. We are the heirs of all the ages and we should leave behind us, for those who come after, something just a little better than was left for us.”

Trustees should strike while the iron is hot. As guardians of childhood they are to make the nation of to-morrow from the children of to-day. During the first few years more can be done to influence a child's life than can be undone in the next fifteen. In the pre-natal condition tendencies are established which it is impossible to change. Heredity cannot be helped, but what of environment? What sort of surroundings have we in the homes and schools of to-day? What is the conversation, the gossip, the example? What sort of bill boards, newspapers and literature do the children come in contact with? Every citizen, every trustee, has an interest in these things or has a right to have. The ideals of the children are in manhood and womanhood around them. What sort of ideals are people giving their children?

AN EDUCATIONAL CAMPAIGN.

This is a real issue and brings me to a feature in education that has not been emphasized as it should. We need an educational campaign in Canada. The government is moving forward, slowly, but wisely, but I believe that progress could be swifter if public opinion were more quickly developed. The government can help much: \$10,000 for five years would give a boom to educa-

tional progress that nothing else could do. The government cultivates agricultural sentiment; it develops power and energy for mechanical advancement; it lifts and moves commerce forward; why not campaign the country for the highest moral and educational interests. Education is a series of human experiences leading up to an increase of knowledge, power and good will, knowledge of the mind, force, ability, and skill of the body, and good will of the soul. To advance the education of the people is the highest privilege as it is the most important duty of statesmanship. Let the government have men to preach this doctrine. The parents on the farms and in the country villages have only faintly heard the stir of the government and this association, and have hardly been moved by the great events that have thrilled the hearts of those who know. Yet these people, from whose homes our citizens must come, and out of whose pockets the means to make them must be paid, have not as yet shown very much interest in the great movement. They must be enthused with a vision of the need, and with a sense of personal obligation, before it can be said that sentiment is aroused. How can this be done? By the government spending \$10,000 a year, or more if need be, to carry the claims of manhood and citizenship to them, and show that every boy and girl is needed of the highest type to make Canada a land of liberty, and honor, and integrity. Is it not worth the effort?

NEED OF MORAL TRAINING.

We must have moral training. The leaders in every country are impressed with this demand. They have become seized with the thought that the schools are not being as well utilized as they can be for the development of citizenship, hence a great international organization is now busily engaged in ascertaining the best results of moral training in the schools of Britain, Germany, Switzerland, Italy, America and Japan.

I stand for Christian training, for the development of character in the ennobling pattern set before us in God's Word. I am in accord with Principal Falconer, president of the University, through whose kindness we assemble here, to-day, who says: "I believe that the highest type of citizenship cannot be permanently developed apart from a sense of obligation to and reverence for the

moral order which is divine." In days past we have swung far afield. We have not made the best and noblest use of that great volume of experience, of ripe wisdom and richest statesmanship—the Bible. I am not an advocate of its use, text by text in the schools, but I am convinced that the presentation of its great thoughts, rich conceptions and telling imagery in the form of literature, would add strength and fibre to the rising generation. Let us have in our readers the thrilling stories of the men of Bible times. What more inspiring than the lessons to be drawn from God's proof-men, the faithful Abraham, the patient Job, the courageous Paul, the impetuous Peter, the dauntless Elijah, the wise Solomon? They would give strength and force to biographies of men of later times. There is a lamentable ignorance among the rising generation about the Bible; its quotations are now infrequently used outside the pulpit. In regard to this matter we might profitably take a hint from the motherland. Whatever else we may say about the English schools, says one writer, they do turn out well-behaved, orderly boys and girls, respectful to those set over them, grounded in the morals of Christian civilization, with an instinctive sense of obedience to law and a becoming regard for the authorities that represent it. Would we be any the worse off if we had more of these qualities here? May it not happen that in our effort to keep all questions of religion and morals in what we consider their proper place, they may in reality be left without any place in the training of a good many children?

SUPERVISED PLAYGROUNDS.

The playground may be made a means of development if properly controlled. I would have spaces in every village, town and city to be purely the recreation spots for boys and girls. I would have the games under control of a field instructor or assistant chosen from among the boys themselves. The cities and towns have policemen, jailers, inspectors, high-priced men, whose duties are chiefly to seek to improve the morals of the vicious, to help in the reformation of the evil ones; why not have the corporation pay for an officer whose aim would be to keep the youths in integrity, uprightness, and purity. It would save many thousands of dollars for good citizens are cheap; it is the perverse and wicked in every place that create guardians of the law, and put the taxes upon the

honest and upright. I would change this. I believe if we can train the child into avenues of physical courage, fair play, and fair treatment we will have done much to improve the tone and character of the community. There is no better time to mould character in boys, and girls, too, than while they play and an astute and earnest man, full of tact and experience, can arouse a spirit of honor and uprightness that will be a stake driven deep, and hard to uproot when manhood with its responsibilities presses hard upon them.

STAYS DELINQUENCY.

Judge Ben Lindsay told a Chicago convention that he regarded playgrounds as greater preventives of delinquency than courts.

Jane Addams said our cities were spending one hundred times as much for the care of delinquent children as they were for such recreation as would prevent their delinquency. We could not expect our young people to grow up good moral citizens unless we furnish them proper opportunities for recreation.

Dr. Gulic declares that "play, to play well and play manly, is the best possible preparation for the life of the citizen in a democratic country."

Joseph Lee insists that the acquiring of power of self-government and of obedience to law were essential results of successful play. The playground properly equipped and administered is no less important than the public school as an agency for the best and complete development of the youth.

Play is essential, and the health and vigor of the boy or girl depends on the amount of play they get. It is essential to the discharge of superabundant vigor; also as a relaxation to body and mind, and last, but not least, it gives the organs of the body their necessary vigor, and prepares them for the tasks and battles of life. The clean, wholesome physical developing sport builds character as it should be built.

By all means let us have supervised playgrounds, and let the government bear a share in the providing of them and their conduct. It will be a system of educational ranging, as effective and as necessary as forest and fire ranging towards which it appropriates large sums.

I could say much more about the benefits of systematic play but I have indicated enough to bring your thoughts to bear upon the issue. Every trustee should be interested and by co-operation and expenditure put discipline upon the playgrounds and add vigor and strength to the community's life. Then sports would not be challenged because of their uncleanness, for their gambling tendencies and the vulgarity of speech and parade. Instead of the saloon being the chief centre of sporting activity, a healthy moral atmosphere could be created, if enlightened measures were taken by trustee, by town councillor, by clergy and citizens. Let them seize the strategic points and make the playground an agency for the best and completest development of young manhood.

The famous Duke of Wellington is reported to have said on one occasion that "the battle of Waterloo was won on the playfields of Eton. However true this may or may not be there is no doubt whatever the boy learns on the playground, self-control, self-confidence and that spirit of rough and ready, give and take, which will stand him in good stead in the world of work throughout his after life.

Of course many a citizen will say that the town or city has no money for such work. Perhaps not. But money spent in the way I have indicated will not be wasted. It will produce results as surely as any money expended in any other educational work. The devil will have little chance while boys are busy on the playground; it is while they are idle and allowed to spend their time haphazardly that sin and vice grow.

GUARD OUR WARDS.

We need to have close guard over our wards, to lead them towards good citizenship. The educationalists of the United States indict the children of that land as manifesting—

A tendency toward a disregard for constituted authority.

A lack of respect for age and superior wisdom.

A weak appreciation of the demands of duty.

A disposition to follow pleasure and interest rather than obligation and order.

Possibly a similar condition of affairs could be charged here. In Toronto the accusation has been made that its children are a bad lot. This may not be the fact but it suggests doubt by some

in normal childhood. Home and the school must do work to maintain a high standard. What a noble mission is that of the teacher to train and mould "the sweetest thing that ever grew beside a human door." Put the best in them by contact with the best in life. I have put much responsibility upon the teacher; if I were speaking of the work of the home I would declare its potentiality and power in creating character as greater than the school, but my theme is citizen making, the mission of the school, and I will not undervalue it. My purpose is to inspire and point out to teachers the glorious mission that is theirs. Give the best of teaching, of reading, calculating, of mind testing and balancing, but add precepts and ideals also. Preach much; practice much. Keep before the little folk a higher standard than their achievements. No life should ever reach the limit of its ideals; nor should the ideals be lowered to present or past attainment. The goal must be forever in front. Develop and advance is the motto of the best citizen. The teacher has a thousand ways in her teaching hours to suggest lessons that will make impressions for the best. Never let an opportunity slip; do not scold or dogmatize; impress the lesson considerately, wisely, gently. It will stick. Set forth the idea that misconduct injures the offender more than anyone else. He is the noblest teacher who "turns out children able to exercise their wills under the guidance of sweet reasonableness and possessed of some worthy ideals of life and duty."

HYGIENE SECTION.

*REPORT ON THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON
SCHOOL HYGIENE.*

MISS E. NAINBY, TORONTO.

The subjects discussed covered so wide an area of thought, that it is difficult to know where to begin, they were as many and various as the people and nationalities who attended this Conference of some 1,650 members. On thinking it over afterwards, I could but feel how true the words of a well known speaker were:—"That it was the most important Congress ever held in England, and one destined to have results more far-reaching in their beneficial effects on the rising and future generations of mankind than has yet been in the least apprehended either by teachers or by the general public." It was a matter of general regret that so few members of the teaching profession, and especially so few heads of schools were taking part. Those who are responsible for regulating the lives of children during the critical growing years, could have brought into the discussion the practical side of questions from their point of view, instead of leaving so much of it to doctors and specialists in Hygiene and kindred subjects, who are not face to face with the inner working and organizing of a school.

As a whole the meeting was a delightful one, because all were keenly interested in the subjects under discussion, our trouble being that there were eleven sections and always a paper under discussion in each section that one wanted to hear.

In addition to these eleven sections certain matters of vital importance in school life, were emphasized by set discussions, where the opinions of representatives from different countries could be considered, such as Medical Examination of school children. Lighting and ventilation, of class rooms, the School and its relation to tuberculosis, and School work in its relation to duration of lessons, sequence of subjects and seasons of the year.

In Section I. "The Physiology and Psychology of educational methods and work," an excellent paper was given on "John Locke, an authority on School Hygiene in England in the Seventeenth Century." His sounding note, "A sound mind in a sound body," written primarily for his two pupils, show how far his remarks were in advance of his time. And this paper by a Darmstadt Oberlehrer, in England, shews how Locke touched upon the vital questions of health, clothing, diet, emphasizing (what to-day we much need), the necessity of plenty of sleep and recreation. He speaks of swimming too, and bathing, taking it as a matter of course that every boy should learn to swim. A Swedish Professor, dwelling on the teaching of languages, shewed how great were the difficulties caused to the child by the ignorance of parents and teachers in failing to recognize adenoids as being the cause of difficulties in pronunciation. Miss Ravenhill gave the results of enquiry into 9,000 cases as to the hours of sleep, and dwelt on the fact that deficiency of sleep was a potent factor in mal-nutrition.

Section II. On the Medical Inspection of Schools, was presided over by Professor Osler. In this section there was a cry on all sides not only for inspection by means of doctor, nurse, teacher and parent, but for the systematic training of teachers in Hygiene, and also the great importance of the teaching gymnastics in connection with Hygiene. This was again brought forward in the three sections on the Hygiene of the teaching profession, the instruction in Hygiene for teachers and scholars and physical education and training in Hygiene.

In the discussions on the Hygiene of the teaching profession Dr. Macnamara earned the thanks of teachers for his vigorous protest against the thoughtlessness of authorities in building schools in noisy streets, and for the stress he laid on the teachers' needs for plenty of open air recreation, long holidays and freedom from the burden of home work. I find that it is not the pupils only whose health needs careful attention, but my experience is that so much energy, good work and influence by example is lost, by those who teach, failing to realize that the physical management of themselves touches the efficiency of their work at every point.

In the Section on Physical Training and Personal Hygiene, Dr. Mary Scharlieb gave her personal experience as to the physique of those girls who were training for teachers, a paper specially helpful for the guidance of head mistresses and others who have to

direct the physical and mental work of girls during a critical period of their lives.

Mrs. Humphrey Ward and others discussed the subject of Holiday Camps and Schools, and also the Relation of Home and school, while Sir Shurley Murphy, Medical Officer of Health for London, presided over the very important section devoted to considering contagious diseases, ill health and other conditions affecting attendance.

Other sections were devoted to the feeble-minded, blind and deaf and dumb children, while the section on the Hygiene of residential schools, presided over by Dr. Clement Dukes of Rugby, discussed many difficult and debatable questions such as diet, milk supply, and the very difficult question of the position of the teacher as supplying the place of the parents when they had failed to give their children necessary instruction in matters touching their moral life.

The last section was under the guidance of the President of the Royal Institute of British Architects, and dealt with school buildings and equipment. Much of this section was exemplified by the exhibits on view in the adjoining buildings, where we could see all kinds of apparatus and models of buildings which had been sent from most countries in Europe.

Of the seven resolutions which were adopted by the Congress, I give you the two most important.

"Whereas the improvement in health and of the hygienic conditions surrounding school children, depends largely upon the intelligent co-operation, the competency, the interest, and the faithfulness of teachers and principals in matters of hygienic importance, therefore, be it resolved, that all schools having courses for the training of teachers should give instruction in (a) personal hygiene, and (b) the principles and practice of physical training, and that to each of these subjects should be given as much time as the major subjects in the course."

The other is as follows:—

"Whereas the maintenance and development of the health and vigour of school children is of paramount importance, and whereas, experience in all large cities has shown the importance of health inspection, be it resolved, that in every city and town adequate provisions should be made both for the sanitary inspection of schools and for medical inspection of school children, the latter to include

not only inspection for contagious diseases, but also of eyes, ears, teeth, throat, and nose, and of general physical conditions."

These are some of the matters that we brought under consideration bearing quite as much on the teacher as on the pupil, but if education is to aim at equipping the citizen for his work in the world, will he give his fullest and best, if he neither knows nor practices the main facts of hygiene?

Should we endure the over-heated dwellings with the unsuitably thin clothing which subjects the wearer to violent changes of temperature?

Are our concert halls, churches and theatres, places of perfect ventilation?

If the citizens of Canada were educated theoretically and practically in matters of hygiene, would they wilfully encourage the spread of disease by drinking polluted water, travelling in trains heated to a tropical temperature, or in elevators, street cars, where clean and unclean, diseased and healthy are hopelessly jammed together? If a roll call could be published of the damage done, yes, of the deaths caused directly and indirectly by these blots on the life of the nation, would not the voice of the people rise up and put a stop to them?

If every child in our schools started on his career with a definite knowledge of things hygienic, should we not have a race of sextons, caretakers, brakemen and—citizens—who would never allow such things to exist?

May we not hope, that until hygiene is recognized as a necessary subject in every education, Congress will not only be International but National and local?

The resolutions which were adopted read as follows:—

1. Whereas the improvement in the health and of the hygienic conditions surrounding school children depends largely upon the intelligent co-operation, the competency, the interest, and the faithfulness of teachers and principals in matters of hygienic importance, therefore, be it resolved, that all schools having course for the training of teachers should give instruction in (a) personal and school hygiene, and (b) the principles and practice of physical training, and that to each of these subjects should be given as much time as the major subjects in the course.

2. That this Congress is of opinion that the principles and practice of hygiene should form part of the education of every citizen.

3. This Congress considers that practical and theoretical instruction in personal and school hygiene should form a part of the curriculum of all institutions in which students are trained to become teachers in schools of all grades.

4. That, in the opinion of this Congress, it is important to secure the proper exclusion of scholars suspected of suffering from or likely to convey infectious disease, and that the Board of Education be urged to devise some means by which this can be done.

5. That, in order to make suitable provisions for partially deaf children who could better be taught in special schools, special schools should be provided under the management of properly qualified teachers: such schools should be in each country under special legislation affecting afflicted children.

6. That, in the opinion of this meeting, it is desirable that all secondary schools, including public schools, should be subjected to inspection on matters relating to hygiene and sanitation; and that a copy of this resolution should be forwarded to the President of the Board of Education, praying him to take such steps as he may consider necessary to carry such inspection into effect.

7. Whereas the maintenance and development of the health and vigour of school children is a matter of paramount importance, and whereas experience in all large cities has shown the importance of health inspection, be it resolved that in every city and town adequate provisions should be made both for sanitary inspection of schools and for medical inspection of school children, the latter to include not only inspection for contagious diseases, but also of eyes, ears, teeth, throat, and nose, and of general physical conditions.

MANUAL ARTS SECTION.

*PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS—MANUAL TRAINING, THE
BASIS OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION AND
EFFICIENCY.*

W. L. RICHARDSON, TORONTO.

Elementary School Curricula have, in recent years, been subjected to many changes, the most significant of which has been the insertion of various forms of "Constructive Work." That the courses of study have undergone such careful and painstaking criticism and remodelling is due to two main causes. The first of these has its basis in the changed conditions of society and life. A large part of education in America to a point of time only a few decades back was secured through a genuine participation in the industries of the home and its neighboring shops. It is doubtful if any future system of training can excel that formerly obtained in this way. But, the perfecting of steam and electric power, the amazing improvements in labor-saving machinery, the advent of the factory, of metropolitan cities and apartment houses, has made the former adequate training in a large measure no longer possible. Thus have arisen many educational problems unknown to the old philosophy. These must be met and solved.

Of far greater significance, however, although to some extent co-incidental with the demand that the course of study in our schools shall be more practical, more in line with life, has been the gradual realization of the truths enunciated by Pestalozzi and Froebel. Fortunately modern educational philosophy differs less day by day from modern educational practice. This great change, now in process of fulfilment, may be summed up in the thought underlying the new attitude of the teacher toward the child. The latter is no longer viewed as a little man, but as an ever varying organism, gradually unfolding from hour to hour. The education of the child is seen to be a socializing and individualizing process, one in which he is led from his primitive instincts, through the

interests based on them, to an accurate valuation of self, to a consciousness of what he is, what his relations are to his environment, and how he may best improve those relations.

Manual Training may be defined as training in thought expression by other means than words or gesture. Whether as a new subject or a new method, Manual Training has won its way to a strong position in the elementary curriculum. This place is due to the need caused by changes in society and in life, on the one hand, and to the revelations of the modern science of Child Study on the other. The initiative and progressive spirit of Manual Training teachers as evidenced both by enthusiastic conventions and well-edited publications—unequalled in other branches of the teaching profession—have been no small factor in its battle for recognition. Manual Training now forms an integral part of the elementary school education. Its aim is all-round, rather than special development; the production of the highest type of self-directing and self-directed citizenship. The child of Public School age is anxious to do, to express himself through material. Manual Training seeks to gratify this desire. Its developmental results are many and varied. The most noticeable and practical are increased power of hand and eye, increased ability to judge soundly and to choose wisely, and its general tonal effect on intellect and character.

Industrial Education aims specifically to produce efficient men. To the casual observer it might seem to be simply an advanced form of Manual Training. But although incidentally the mental equipment is enriched and the horizon widened, the primary object of industrial education is special and not general. Through it the boy is prepared for some department of craftsmanship, for a vocation in life. Like other training for specific purposes, special buildings and equipment should be provided. Whether these should be closely connected with the general school is a moot question, and, not affecting the relationship of Manual Training and Industrial Education, need not be discussed here. To understand the proper relationship of Industrial Education to a general education, let us suppose that the "Three R's" and the Manual Training have had the effect designed. Let us take it for granted that the mind is awakened and alert, that expression has always been provided for and never been hampered, and hence is in a constant upward scale of improvement, that judgment is keen and

sure, and that choice is deliberate and unfaltering. Let us then offer the boy facilities for what may be termed "Specialized Manual Training." Let us place in his way accommodation and equipment where he may secure specific instruction in the craft which his Manual Training has revealed to him is his aptitude. We shall then be providing him with an Industrial Education. In addition to giving him the means with which to earn his daily bread, Industrial Education incidentally makes the boy powerful, just and courageous. It gives him socially independent feelings, through the kindling of his ability and desire to assist his fellows. Its end is the evolving of a citizen who, conscious of his power to act independently, helpfully, even heroically, if occasion arise, is willing to subvert self for the good of the State, to battle for righteousness in public questions, and for purity in politics. Briefly in the broadest sense of the word, its end is efficiency. To develop men who can do eminently well that which they are designed to do, and who can take their place among their fellows with credit to themselves, to the society in which they move and to the State—this is efficiency, the end of Industrial Education.

Manual Training is in our schools because leading educators felt that such training was needed for complete development. This need comes from the break-down of social conditions which formerly obtained almost universally, and also from a keener appreciation of child nature. Now, there is a rising and a well-founded need for definite Industrial Education. This is felt by the boy and by his parents. These cannot glibly quote the large percentage who leave school at from thirteen to fifteen years of age for industrial pursuits. Neither do they know the correspondingly small percentage who go into the professions. They do, however, realize more and more, the necessity of their own particular boys having precise ability along some definite line. They feel, too, that the boy should know that he has both the knowledge and the power to do valuable work.

Thus we are confronted with one reason for the introduction of a carefully planned scheme of Industrial Education. Prominent educators advocated for years the balancing of our courses of study, and now the man on the street understands the necessity of extending the practical departments. He sees good boys with liberal natural endowments and the education provided by the land, wandering about from elevator to delivery wagon, from factory to

office, office to store, now here, now there, trusting to fortune for a favorable wind to waft their storm-tossed ships to some congenial clime. After two or three years of such buffeting, he is to be found at eighteen or twenty years of age with a very slightly increased earning capacity and probably in the initial stages of several bad habits. Now, this is often disastrous to the boy. It is always disastrous to the State. The boy has lost power, during valuable years. The State has lost the resultant of his increased capability and also has invested money in an education, which, for that boy, was inadequate. The requirement is not a better education, but a different one. Viewed economically, it is at least open to debate whether the State should do so much for the boy who happens to be born with a taste for law or medicine or teaching and so little for his brother whose motor impulses happen to be dominant. A century ago the apprentice system would have provided for our coming craftsman. Apprenticeship had advantages and disadvantages. It gave ability to apply rules, but not to apply the principles on which those rules depended. It produced an efficient workman and a good-living citizen, but offered little opportunity for the development of intellect or judgment. However, the apprentice system has had its day and can never be revived.

But what is to become of the boy? Until recently he must depend upon chance. There are still comparatively few localities where even an attempt is made to meet the difficulty. Rather than have him lose time and incidentally bring our much vaunted educational system into disrepute, he would be better in school. Manifestly the problem is one of helping him find his proper place in society. The school is a social institution, already highly developed, which must deal with the problem of preparing him for useful work, for efficiency, for happiness. Efficiency, herself, clamors in many tongues and in no uncertain sound. Shall an industrial people with enormous natural resources awaiting the master hand, depend for her workmen upon chance? Hence, the need for Industrial Education. But Manual Training must be sharply distinguished from Industrial Education. Manual Training is not Industrial Education, but it is a step in the right direction. It is the solid basis on which substantial Industrial Education may be erected.

It is very generally conceded that the Elementary School should teach fundamental knowledge. The specialized details of any department, either of knowledge or of practice, should be taught in special schools. We have an abundance of schools and colleges which give liberal culture or which provide training in commercial practice, or in the professions. We have a few good institutions devoted to the production of men trained to direct and oversee other men, but for the hosts of capable boys knocking at the doors of our factories and shops, our educational facilities are lamentably inadequate. Knowledge of language, knowledge of calculation and knowledge of economic processes have always constituted the conventional broad intelligence. The knowledge and practice of economic processes, formerly obtained in the home, but now taught in a general fashion in Manual Training classes, thus become the foundation upon which the vocational training of the special Industrial School should be laid.

Demands for boys with mechanical tendencies for shop and factory are no longer infrequent. That such boys might be overlooked and unsuitable boys be chosen, in the school in which Manual Training forms no part of the week's work is not only possible, but probable. The Elementary School should be the centre from which a boy may look out in many directions. It should allow him a glance into many fields. Herein lies one strong relationship between Manual Training and Industrial Education. All boys like Manual Training, but all are not equally successful. Each one can decide for himself whether his success in the shop is greater than in other branches of the school work. Manual Training helps a boy to find himself, helps to reveal his aptitude. If he should go into industrial fields, Manual Training tells him so. Without Manual Training there have been many professional and commercial mis-fits, much mechanical genius has been lost, and both society and the State rendered so much the poorer.

All school education may be said to rest upon the "Three R's." The knowledge gained from their study may be the basis of other knowledge, or it may be the instrument for obtaining other knowledge, or it may be both. If it is used both as a basis for new knowledge and also the instrument for obtaining that knowledge, that is if some department of the "Three R's" is further studied, extended and specialized, the requisite academic standing for commerce, law, journalism, and kindred occupations is obtained. But

if the boy must be satisfied with the book-knowledge of the Elementary School, nothing else is of such great practical benefit as ability to use the hands, to work with tools and to manipulate material. This points to the second relationship. Manual Training and Industrial Education alike have for their principal concern, problems in which materials, tools and the hands are the prime factors. The Elementary School is essentially designed for mental and cultural development. Educators do not claim that it is utilitarian, that is, the subjects of the curriculum have place there primarily not because the knowledge imparted and received will be of positive value in subsequent years, although the latter frequently happens to be true. The subjects of the elementary curriculum, including Manual Training, are a means to an end. They are the best known agencies for the development of the mind. But there is a sense in which all the work of the school is of real practical value. The skilled knowledge acquired in Manual Training classes is undoubtedly of great subsequent value, even if the pupil enters a profession. And, just as the knowledge of Language, of Literature, or History and Arithmetic are useful to him who afterwards eschews all work with the hands, so the skill and knowledge obtained in Manual Training are of importance to him, who is later to receive an Industrial Education, as a preparation for work in a shop or factory. Some of the commoner machine tools, such as the speed lathe, are well known to the boy so fortunate as to obtain advanced Manual Training. Most trades require at least a fair knowledge of machinery. If the boy about to receive an Industrial Education, has already made the acquaintance of pulleys, wheels and shafts, belts and bearings, it might be said that he has more than won his matriculation into the Industrial School. That Manual Training is the educational forbear of Industrial Training is here very evident.

In an age of unions and strikes, of trusts and combines, there is a growing tendency toward a harsh, unsympathetic feeling of class to class. Men unite and become conscious of their power. They come to believe that their employers are certain to exact the full tale of brick. They think that more and more they are expected to gather their own straw in fields already bare. Many employers are of the opinion that their men will add fresh demands to others just granted. Each is suspicious of the other. Manual Training here exerts a strong influence on industry and

Industrial Education. Modern society is built on industry. Without it would come anarchy and ruin. Manual Training engenders not only a respect for, but a keen interest in manual employment. It is an agency than which there is none better in giving that sympathetic insight into Industrial life which, thoroughly and generally ingrounded, would solve the majority of labor problems.

As Manual Training is a socializing agency, so too, it is an individualizing power. Manual Training and Industrial Education are each individual in general practice. Both recognize that individuals are not gifted with equal possibilities. The old idea that all instruction should tend towards the turning out of pupils with uniform capabilities, like table legs, has almost disappeared. In place of the process which put everybody through the same mill, we have the newer, grander conception of giving opportunity for individual initiative and individual creativity. This conception is partly responsible for the introduction of Manual Training. To it is largely due the movement for Industrial Education. Such a system not only permits, but even demands that the boy choose, that he personally elect the course which he shall pursue. In the comparatively simple projects of the Manual Training room, he is constantly confronted with parallel processes, and with tools apparently equal in value for the purpose in hand. Later he selects the project he likes from two or three approximately equal and he may even propose the problem on his own initiative. It is such practice on a small scale which gives him ability to wisely choose when he is about to leave the elementary school, what new work he shall follow. Whether such pursuit be academic, professional or industrial, his training will almost invariably make it a sensible one and appropriate to his ability. If he choose an industrial calling, the habit formed in his Manual Training immediately comes into play. He is accustomed to look at every problem from all view-points, and thus the craft chosen will probably be the most suitable for him. His vocation being chosen, he finds the individual-initiative method of study, practice and research, the natural and favorite one, both as student and graduate. Manual Training fosters that individuality and independence which alone can raise a workman above the level of his machine.

To sum up :—

1. This paper has defined Manual Training and advanced reasons for its presence in the course of study.

2. The writer's conception of Industrial Education has been stated and the necessity for such education noted.

3. With these definitions of Manual Training and Industrial Education and reasons for the existence of such departments of education as a foundation, it has been laid down that Manual Training is the basis for Industrial Education and efficiency, because :—

- (a) Manual Training discovers which boys will make an industrial success.
 - (b) Manual Training gives knowledge and skill of real use as a foundation to the boy to be industrially trained.
 - (c) Manual Training begets a sympathy for hand work and for hand workers which in non-hand workers is very valuable, though often lacking.
 - (d) Manual Training fosters that individuality, that freedom within law which is absolutely necessary to secure a successful democracy.
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FORMS OF CONSTRUCTIVE WORK FOR PRELIMINARY TRAINING IN THE MANUAL ARTS.

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Constructive work is now almost universally admitted to be necessary for the complete development of the child.

Its aims in the Public School grades should be chiefly educational in character, whilst in the High Schools it might with advantage be specialized and made more technical to suit the necessities of the district or that would be most useful to the boys or girls in their future daily avocation.

In the present article we purpose dealing only with the requirements of the Public School grades, and hope to present some points of interest and utility to the teachers engaged in those schools.

The ground covered by this topic includes such subjects as Drawing, Modelling in Clay, Cardboard, Paper and other materials, as well as basketry, weaving, braiding, bead-work, whittling, etc., etc., each of which would form a complete subject in itself.

Any or all of these subjects would lead up to the work in the higher grades of the school, in fact many of them could be continued with advantage through the entire school course. They each aim at the same goal, viz., the training of the children through their activities.

The child educates itself. The teachers' purpose is to guide rather than instruct. Too much instruction is liable to weaken the child's initiative and so prevent that self-education which is so desirable, and which is so manifest in the Manual Arts, and that, in my opinion, is why the various types of constructive work form such an important part of a child's education. It is not so much the amount of information acquired, mere memory work, but the power, and the adaptability of being able to reason and work out the problems for themselves that is so important. Do not misunderstand me, I do not desire in the least degree to disparage pure memory work. It has its place in the child's education and should not be neglected, but nevertheless it should not occupy too much of the time devoted to school work.

We hear a great deal about the splendid self-education that boys on the farm obtain. That was no doubt very true thirty years ago when a great variety of occupations were carried on there, but in these days of machines and quick transportation that self-education on the farm is gradually diminishing in much the same manner as, owing to the minute sub-divisions of labor in the manufactories we are gradually losing the well qualified craftsman. Our men are becoming mere machines. It becomes our duty, then, as educators to strive to so train our children that they may really live, that they may be able to take an active and intelligent interest in the world around them, to respect manual labor of all kinds, to give good honest labor, and to believe that the laborer is worthy of his hire.

Let us for a moment glance at some of the occupations of the old homes. Some of us probably scarcely ever think of the vast array of variety of manipulations, with their accompanying mental

processes, which these old time duties involved. Here are some of them, part of which of course have still to be performed on the homestead :—

The man—cleared land, cut wood, split rails and posts, built stone walls; built barns and sheds, made simple furniture and farm utensils, involving carpentry, blacksmithing and painting; cared for bees, poultry, sheep, cattle, horses; could break colts and steers; milk, shear sheep, butcher; could plough, plant, cultivate and harvest vegetables; sow, mow, reap, thresh and winnow grain; could read the sky, tell birds, wild animals, insects and common plants and trees at sight; could plant, prune and graft trees, make maple syrup and vinegar, cure ham and bacon; fish, trap, and hunt successfully; make shoes, harness, and simple tools; weave baskets, make kites, bow guns, darts, whistles, etc., for the children, and repair anything.

The woman—understood all phases of housework, sweeping, dusting, washing, ironing; could cook, make yeast, soap, candles, butter, cheese, sausages, preserves of all sorts, candy, wines, and cordials; could spin yarn from wool and thread from flax; dye and knit, weave and embroider; shrink cloth, bleach cloth; cut out and make ordinary garments; darn, and mend anything well; braid rugs, paper a room, cut hair; gather medicinal herbs; nurse the sick; manage the flower garden, have potted plants bloom all winter indoors; milk, make hay, and still find time to bring up a family of children.

Such a variety of manipulations with their accompanying mental processes, with which the children were more or less familiar, must tend to produce a race of people capable of great planning, thinking and originality, a people capable of great deeds and noble actions, an earnest and sensible people.

“Education comes through what a child does, and says, and thinks, and feels in the presence of the environment which the teacher supplies. The teacher teaches the child; the child educates himself. In being taught the child is passive; in being educated he is active. The thing to be stressed is that the teachers educate more, even, if to gain the time necessary for it, they have to teach less. Education is self-expression, not impression alone. Every impression made by the teacher upon pupils should be followed by expression in some fashion from the pupils.”
“Philosophy of Education,” Herman H. Horne.

Then if we are to apply the above principles it follows that our work must be an integral part of each day's routine, not something added or taken when convenient. The Manual Arts should be interlaced with every part of the school programme and wherever possible opportunity should be given the children of expressing in some tangible form the impressions they have received in the various lessons. This principle has in some measure been realized in all ages, hence the pictorial references so often found in school books; but why not give full scope to such an important truth and let the children not only see pictures, but make, handle, feel, see, and arrange real things for themselves.

The Manual Arts can be brought more closely in touch with the ordinary school subjects by allowing the children this liberty of expression, in any available and suitable material, of the concepts which they have received during any period.

The educational advantages of such a course must, I think, be obvious to every one.

In the first place it will show whether the boy has a clear and complete concept of the article or articles in question.

The very fact that the pupil will be called upon for a reproduction will naturally cause him to give more or less attention to detail, whilst the making of the various objects is an education in itself calling forth care, neatness, accuracy, etc., etc., as well as enlarging the pupil's ability to create.

"Why cultivate the hand to express the ideas of the mind? Why! Because knowledge is indeed a poor thing if it cannot find expression."

Our mind can only receive ideas, it cannot express them without the help of some agent. What are these agents?

Our impressions are received through the five senses—sight, hearing, smell, taste and touch. These are the channels through which all our knowledge is obtained and although we have so many available means of receiving impressions yet we have only two—the voice and the hand—which enable us to give expression to our ideas.

Through these two the mind finds expression in architecture, painting, sculpture, and all the Manual Arts, thus showing that the hand is man's most important agent of expression.

That being so let us all endeavor to give each child an opportunity of obtaining as much hand-training as possible, so that in

after life he may enjoy the great privilege of being able to express great and noble ideas, and to be able to appreciate all the more the masterpieces of the great artists of the world. How we all must have longed at times to put into definite form some noble or beautiful creation of the mind born in some moment of inspiration.

In the early part of a child's life he should have as many and varied occupations as possible, as the young mind soon tires of any one of them. In later life he becomes more pertinacious, he acquires the desire to overcome obstacles, and thus obtains the mastery over materials, which leads him to the desired goal.

The young require variety. The child has little power to classify and reason, so should not be expected to give close observation for any great length of time, nor should he be expected to make fine measurements; he must have freedom. He is interested in all the common things around him, so give him plenty of variety. Later on he begins to make selections, discarding the commoner one for certain particular ones, and so he acquires the power of discrimination, the ability to concentrate his attention on fewer objects, and finally to overcome obstacles and gain the desired end.

From the great number of occupations to select from it should not be difficult to choose those which might be taken, with advantage, in any particular school. "From the known to the unknown, from the easy to the more difficult" is a well known educational axiom, in following which we cannot get far astray.

If the children have already had some training in a good kindergarten, the occupations already learnt there, such as modelling in clay or sand, paper cutting and folding, stick laying, color work, etc., etc., might with great advantage be continued to a more advanced stage.

Mechanical drawing should, in my opinion, receive more attention than appears to be given in many schools, not in the dry form of a separate isolated subject, but in connection with the occupations. The interest aroused in the young minds, enables the children to grasp the meaning or shall I say the underlying principles involved in many of the simple geometric forms. In paper folding and cardboard construction these principles are easily taught. Take for example a square piece of paper and, by folding, you at once see what a large amount of geometrical

information can be taught about triangles, their angles and sides, etc. All square corners are equal, all half square corners are also equal; in triangles equal sides are opposite equal angles and so on. These principles can be easily verified by cutting or folding and fitting one upon another. Such concrete examples are self-evident and afford a splendid foundation upon which to base future geometrical problems.

The scale should be taught early, not necessarily in minute divisions, as these could be introduced gradually as necessity required, and as the children are already required to draw to scale in map drawing it would be of great advantage if the scale drawing were carried further and some practice given in making drawings of familiar rectilineal objects to scale. These would be of great benefit to the advanced students of the mechanical arts, to the boys who wished to construct squirrel cages, rabbit hutches, dog kennels or other similar models which so delight the hearts of the boys. This work also lays a good foundation for future work in a great many branches of every day labor.

I remember, when one of the centres of woodwork was being equipped in Toronto, a workman was sent to fix a stove in position. He was handed a plan showing exactly where the stove was to be placed, but he was completely at a loss to know where to fix that stove. I venture to say that if that man had had some instruction in mechanical drawing during his school career he would not have shown such incapacity.

Drawing should be considered in the light of a language. One should be able by putting together lines and making comparisons with other lines to *read* a drawing in much the same way that we read printed or written matter by combining letters to form words and words to form sentences, etc.

This graphic language of drawing is a necessary adjunct to all the Manual Arts, as it is in later life to all mechanical pursuits. It is a kind of shorthand, often saving the labor of reading pages upon pages of printed instruction.

Modelling in clay is another important branch of the Manual Arts suitable, not only for the junior, but for all grades of school work.

Its value rests not so much on what is possible in this material as an artistic medium as on the appropriate character of clay for the simple representations desired from the young children.

It is one of the oldest known arts and was and is practised by almost every primitive race where material is available, as is proved by the discoveries made from time to time of relics of pottery made by the people of by gone ages in every part of the world.

Clay is undoubtedly the best medium for training the young mind to a just appreciation of form, and is far superior to drawing or shading in this respect, as being built up in the round, the model has to be seen, and handled, and judged from all sides, thus developing the sense of form in a manner utterly impossible in anything but in a plastic material like clay.

This subject admits of great diversity of treatment, and can be adjusted to any stage of a pupil's school career. It allows exceptional scope in the sense of providing easy or difficult manipulations to suit every phase of child life, thus it can be used with great advantage in every department of the child's school life from the kindergarten to the High School and even beyond that.

It is probably the least expensive of the various materials used in constructive work as it can be used over and over again, and it might be well to note, that, as it is an antiseptic material, there need be no fear of contamination or spreading of infectious diseases of any kind. In fact it is stated on medical authority that disease germs cannot exist in the clay. However, it is sometimes difficult to get people to believe this, and so, to satisfy their desire for safety in the way of contagion, use a little ordinary disinfectant in the water which is used to moisten the clay or sponges or cloths used in covering the models. This will as a rule satisfy the most fastidious parent.

For the children in the junior grades it is advisable to use simple natural objects which do not require too great an attention to detail. Many of the common fruits and vegetables make excellent models. Simple animal forms for sand table work, or illustrative story work are also to be commended.

As the children gain experience use models requiring more detail and more modelling and so lead on to more difficult work in the form of leaves, flowers and parts of the human figure, also encourage design for plaster work, many excellent examples of which may be seen in stores and workshops dealing with orna-

ments in staff plaster. There is an unlimited sphere for originality in this work as staff plaster is now very extensively used for an innumerable variety of purposes.

This is briefly one general scheme by which clay modelling could be carried through all grades of school work and one which affords many opportunities of correlating with other branches of school study.

The method above described is to my mind the best for general school use.

There are other methods sometimes adopted, as for example, incising patterns on slabs of clay, or building up patterns on slabs, the difficulty of the exercises being of course proportioned to the ability of the pupils.

This is too much like teaching clay modelling for the sake of clay modelling instead of being a part of a general scheme.

I might state that this method is now adopted in some art schools for more advanced students and when so used takes the place of shading which in all art schools runs hand in hand with clay modelling.

One point greatly in favor of clay as a medium for expressing form is that the child is entirely master of it, can bend it, shape it, break it, mend it and so on. If the pupil does not obtain the desired form a little can be added here, or a little can be taken away there, and this process carried on until the desired shape is obtained. This could not possibly be done in any other than a plastic material like clay, and so all sculptors use it in the preliminary modelling of all their work.

In wood, stone or metal the object would be beyond repair, if, by some false cut or accident of any kind, some portion of the material were cut away which should not have been.

The property in the clay of answering to even a slight pressure, enables the youngest child in school to handle it with ease, and the fact that the child can see its concept taking more accurate form, see it growing bit by bit, creates an interest, and a confidence, and a development of power not furnished by any other material.

The fact that all the earlier faults—if I may so describe the first rough form of a clay model—entirely disappear in the finished article, thus enabling a perfect model to be made, if the necessary patience and assiduity be applied.

If considered worthy of preservation these models can be fired, or cast in plaster of Paris.

The various forms of moulding as waste moulding, piece moulding, or slip moulding might be practised with advantage in the upper grades.

Pottery is another favourite form in which to work in clay.

The simplest way, for the junior pupils to work, is to build up the models, in, what is generally described, as the Indian fashion, that is, by making rolls of clay and coiling them side by side, smoothing the surface both inside and outside with the fingers or some flat tool, as the work proceeds. In this manner any required shape can be obtained after which if desired, incised patterns or raised pieces of ornament can be applied, the result being often very beautiful and when fired very useful objects.

This gives good scope for suitable designing.

Constructive work in Cardboard is another branch of the Manual Arts which has a range of adaptability suitable for all grades of pupils.

It should follow the paper folding and carton work of the kindergarten and proceed by easy stages to the handling of heavy boards and building up of models of a more solid form.

There is great scope for variety in the models made; and it affords excellent opportunities for teaching drawing, especially the geometrical forms, and the properties of many of the geometrical solids, and thus gives a good foundation for future work in drawing suitable for metal workers or similar artisans.

In the early stages the models might be made of thick paper, and preferably used in connection with some story in the reader for illustrative purposes as was so well demonstrated at last year's conference by Miss King.

I have often heard adults express the opinion that this paper work is of little use as it lacks stability, and in many cases is a poor substitute for the real article. This might be more or less true if the articles were made by the children in the upper grades or by adults, but for the little ones No! decidedly No!

As I said previously the young pupils require variety, and work which will not tax their patience and energy too much or too long. They naturally soon tire of one thing, and the benefit

derived is that the work is their very own, just in the same way that a child will prefer a rag doll of its own make, to the most magnificent one that could be bought for it.

Closely allied to cardboard construction is the subject often called "Scissors' Work" by which silhouettes of an endless variety can be cut out and pasted on some other material.

This forms an interesting occupation for the little ones, and it is surprising how well and how quickly they can use the scissors in this work.

In conclusion let us all strive as far as possible to give each child such a humane education that will develop observation, consideration, kindness and self control, that will make a useful and noble citizen of him, that will build up a character worthy of the name.

"Sow a thought and you reap an action,
Sow an action and you reap a habit,
Sow a habit and you reap a character,
Sow a character and you reap a destiny."

CREATIVITY BY MANUAL ARTS.

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All the important developments of modern education are based on an increasing reverence for the self-hood or individuality of the child. Each child has original power in some department of life work. To kindle this power, and make the child conscious of it, is the supreme work of the teacher. Men are most like their Creator when they are creative. The development of the creative power of each child is the surest basis for his high, and vital, and productive moral training. If a man's originality or creativity has not been developed, or only partially developed, he is a mechanical being in any department of work or in any profession; his work, whatever its nature may be, is drudgery which fails to develop the truest and highest elements of his power; and he fails to achieve his highest destiny.

In many places creativity is not yet recognized as the highest element of human power, nor are the manual arts recognized as the surest and most natural agencies for the development of creativity, even where its value is recognized.

Manual training was first advocated in nearly all countries because of its economic advantages. Then its educational advantages in disciplining the moral nature revealed themselves. Men saw that it developed the love of work, and the tendency to be constructive and productive; that it trained the pupils in habits of definiteness and accuracy, and thus laid the foundation for trueness in character; that it increased a boy's skill and made him executive; that it gave the non-bookish boys an opportunity to prove their ability, and therefore gave them faith in themselves; and that because of these and other incidental advantages it gave the boy and the man a new consciousness of power and a new outlook in life. This view of the value of manual training is much higher than the view that recognizes only its economic advantages. But there is a higher view still. The teacher's vision is imperfect in any operative or productive subject unless the centre of vision is the child's creative power and the development of the self-expression of this power. It is most important that the teacher shall have a clear vision of the highest ideal in any department of his work. He cannot have a comprehensive and properly related recognition of the value of any of the subordinate ideals unless he has a clear and true vision of the highest ideal. Men who do not remain vitally conscious of the highest ideal exaggerate the importance of the subordinate ideals or of the one subordinate ideal which they recognize most clearly. Whenever the attention is fixed too closely on any subordinate ideal, and the importance of that ideal is over-estimated, the vision of the highest ideal and of all related subordinate ideals is obscured. The more fixed the attention on a subordinate ideal and the more disproportionate the value assigned to this ideal, the more impossible it is to recognize the higher and therefore the more important ideal.

The over-estimation of a subordinate ideal by a teacher is quite certain to result in the dwarfing of pupils as well as teachers. One of the dangers at the present time in connection with the manual arts is the widespread idea that perfection of achievement, definiteness and accuracy of construction, is the most vital element in the work of the child. Accuracy of production is an important

aim in any productive work. The child should be trained in habits and in processes of accuracy, because they give an important fibre to character, but accuracy is but one element of a child's selfhood, and no part of anything can be so great as the whole of it. The over-estimation of accuracy in the product in comparison with the value of the development of creative power is based on the fallacy that a part is greater than the whole. One of the most destructive mistakes a teacher or trainer can make is to fix in the mind of a child the purpose of achieving adult accuracy in his work. Accuracy can never be as great as originality. Skill, however great and perfect it may be, can never be of equal value with creative power. The most important educational process through which the child can be guided is a process of self-revelation that makes him conscious of creative power. The epoch moment of his life is the moment when he first becomes conscious of original power.

The young child has not the skill, and should not be expected to have the skill, necessary to achieve perfection of product according to developed adult standards. To fix his attention on mere skill robs him of interest, and trains him to under-value the higher elements of his power. Many children lose interest in self-expression by writing, for instance, because unwise teachers or parents compel them to write their little letters or compositions "over again," so as to make them reach adult standards of perfection in penmanship, and spelling, and grammatical construction. Such teaching may, in an ineffective way, produce penmen, and spellers, and grammarians, but it does so by dwarfing original power and weakening interest. The products of such teaching are men and women who may be moderately good in penmanship, spelling, and grammar, but who can make no vital use of these accomplishments because they have nothing vital to say. They attained a certain amount of skill, often very limited, at the expense of their creative power. Such teaching is weak, however successfully the pupils may pass formal examinations in penmanship, spelling, and grammar.

It is easier to preserve interest in the manual arts than in most of the other subjects, but even in manual arts interest of a vital kind depends on the amount of original work the child is trained to do under fundamental laws revealed by his teacher, and not on satisfaction with the perfection of the things that are made. Interest is always weakened when creativity is sacrificed to form. Skill

and accuracy are of great value, but they reach their highest degree of perfection, when they are regarded and practised, not as the chief aim of education, but as subordinate to the supreme purpose, creativity, or the development of selfhood.

In a recent article in "The Manual Training Teacher," the journal of the National Association of Manual Training Teachers in England, Mr. J. Arrowsmith very ably attacks the theory "that mechanical perfection is synthetic with educational attainment." Mr. Arrowsmith says: "Accuracy, the nineteenth century educational Old Man of the Sea, has ridden our children quite long enough: the lethal chamber is the best place for him. The child's nature rebels against mechanical accuracy. In every action, in every thought, in every expression of his young and vigorous body, his superabundant energy overflows and makes it impossible for him to keep at a task for any length of time, or to do that task *well* without detriment to his physical and mental growth. I pray thee, adult, listen—to *do it well*."

I wish to emphasize the fact that in urging the supreme importance of creative power, I am not undervaluing the disciplinary importance of manual training. I simply claim that creative power is the highest element of human character, and that all subordinate elements attain their best growth in reasonable efforts to attain the supreme ideal.

Nothing I say regarding the value of creativity must be understood as indicating an under-estimate of the economic value of the manual arts. It is a very narrow ideal of the original creative wisdom that assumes that creativity and utility are not in harmony. The highest educational training must be essentially in harmony with the best economic development. Vocational training is a very important department of school work, and we in America are very much behind Germany, especially Bavaria, in training all boys and girls for the specific work they will have to do in life. Creativity in each individual is an essential element in securing his highest success in his vocation.

All children have three tendencies as soon as they are able to reveal themselves to us: they love to do things, to do things they plan themselves, and to do things in co-operation with others. They are naturally self-active. They do not like to do the things planned by others, least of all the things planned by adults who plan in accordance with adult standards. They love to work—not

to work in carrying out the plans of some adult. They would dislike play as much as they too often dislike work, if meddling adulthood interfered with their play as it generally does with their work. They love to work till adulthood robs work of its creativity; they are original till they are compelled to become imitative; they are executive till they are trained in home and school to be merely receptive; they have positive, and therefore good, tendencies till adulthood by negative training gives them negative and therefore bad tendencies; they are self-directive till wrong training robs them of independent initiative; they are creatively productive till adulthood dominates them and substitutes training in some subordinate element for the training of the creative power of the individual child. Each child has creative power in some department of work, and each man would have creative power in some department of his life work if his creative power had not been dwarfed. Culture and skill are essential to the highest success, but when they are given to a child at the expense of his creative power, they produce weakness instead of strength.

Self-planned, self-designed, self-directed work, blesses and develops the child in eight ways. It gives him more power to do the same or similar work to-morrow; it gives him more tendency to do the same or similar work to-morrow; it gives him the supreme joy—the joy of achievement of his own plans; it reveals to his own consciousness the vital truth that he has original power; by revealing his original power it lays the only true basis for his personal responsibility to his fellow men and to his Creator; it develops his genuine faith in himself; it is the source of clearer insight and wider vision; and it establishes and strengthens his executive, transforming and achieving tendencies.

The manual arts, therefore, when they are used truly, are the natural and logical processes for developing the child's creativity and his achieving power. The manual arts may be used to make mechanical imitators. All evil results from misused good. The higher the possibilities of good in any subject, the greater are the possibilities in it for evil, if it be unwisely used. Without the true ideal and aim, the highest development can not be attained by the study of any subject or the practice of any art.

The old aristocratic ideal of government by one ruler at the head of the nation, the one supreme duty of whose subjects was obedience to his laws, was dwarfing to the selfhood of the indi-

viduals composing the nation. The new democratic ideal is, that each individual should put his personal element of power into the making of the laws of his country, so that men and women may reverence law as the organized conception of the people in regard to responsibility and duty. In manual training the aristocratic ideal was at first, and in some places is yet, the dominant ideal. The teacher drew a pattern on the blackboard, and the pupils were required to copy this pattern accurately on paper, and then to draw it on wood and construct a model in harmony with the plan of the teacher. By such training every model should be exactly like every other model. The boys had to write their names on their models in order to be sure that each could recognize his own. In harmony with the democratic ideal the laws of construction and decoration are made clear to all the pupils of a class, and the construction and decoration of the model are carried out by each boy in harmony with his own original plans. Each article represents not only the child's conception of law in construction and decoration, but his creative power as well. True obedience is not submissive subordination to the will of a ruler, but intelligent co-operation with others in achieving a common purpose, guided by fundamental principles, and applying these principles in accordance with the originality of each individual. When the manual arts are used in accordance with the true democratic ideal they develop the creative power of each child and give him a practical training in the truest citizenship by revealing law as his friend and guide, and by showing the value of his individual power as an element in social evolution.

The old use of the manual arts valued the thing or the picture more than the boy, and the boy produced by such training was worth little more than the teacher's estimate of him. The new ideal of development by manual arts puts the child in the centre, recognizes creativity as his highest element of power, and focuses attention on the highest rather than on any subordinate element of power.

Every true lesson in any subject in which the pupils may do productive work consists of two parts. In the first part the teacher enlarges the vision of the pupils and increases their knowledge of the subjects in hand: he reveals new laws and gives the new facts necessary for the next step in advance, and relates them to the knowledge the child already possesses. In the second part the child

is called upon to use his enlarged powers to produce an original result to show that the new lesson is not merely in his memory, but that it is a part of his available power, so that he is now able to produce a better result than he could have produced before he received his new development. The first part of the lesson may be called the receptive part, and the second the executive part. In the old use of the manual arts the second or executive part of the lesson left the child to achieve only the plans given to him by the teacher. The new use of the manual arts leaves the child free to use his selfhood enlarged and improved by his new lesson to achieve in harmony with his own plans and ideals. The old increased his skill; the new increases his skill, develops his creative power, and strengthens his tendency to be self-directive in achievement.

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 Calbert, Lily, Avening.
 Calbert, Margaret, Avening.

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 Fair, Maude, Elimville.
 Fairman, P. W., Trenton.
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 Flower, John, Welland.
 Fox, Harriett, Cobalt.
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 Frisby Walter, Victoria Square.
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 McRoberts, Mrs. J. H., London.
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 Mitchell, L., Hagersville.
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 Butler, Miss Beatrice, Stratford.
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 tawa.
 Bapty, Miss Gertrude, 149 St. James
 St., London.
 Bryans, Miss Agnes E., 746 Richmond
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 Bolton, Miss E., Normal School, Ot-
 tawa.
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 Lyon, Miss Maud, 579 King Edward Ave, Ottawa.
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 Millar, Miss Edythe, 533 Sherbourne St., Toronto.
 McCoffrey, Miss Mary, 220 Metcalfe St., Ottawa.
 McIlwain, Miss Mabel, 147 Jamieson Ave., Toronto.
 Newman, Miss Carrie, 580 Church St., Toronto.

Neish, Miss. L. N., 308 University Ave., Kingston.
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 Thompson, Rev. T. J., Stratford.
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 Johnston, Wm., Brockville.
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 McDougall, J. B., North Bay.
 McLaughlin, John, Gore Bay.
 Mackintosh, W., Madoc.
 Mills, G. K., Collingwood.
 Mulloy, C. W., Aurora.
 Nesbit, D. A., Newburgh.
 Odell, Albert, Cobourg.
 Prendergast, Wm., Toronto.
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 Smith, Mrs. J. H., Chatham.
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Standing, T. W., Brantford.
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 Tilley, Dr. W. E., Bowmanville.
 Voaden, John, Sarnia.
 Waugh, Dr. J., Whitby.

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 Aylesworth, Mrs. G. A., Newburgh.
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 Arlidge, W. F. C., Meaford.
 Anderson, John, Arthur.
 Arnold, M. C., Brockville.
 Armitage, W. L., Picton.
 Bourcier, E. W., Ottawa.
 Bell, J. R., Orangeville.
 Brown, E. A., Woodstock.
 Blanchard, F., Lindsay.
 Bryans, Dr. W. F., Toronto.
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 Clendenning, James, Banner.
 Campbell, R. G., Sault Ste. Marie.
 Clarkson, Geo., Woodstock.
 Corbett, R. J., Mount Forest.
 Davy, F. J., Prescott.
 Dow, J. B., Whitby.
 Davis, Peter, Brockville.
 Day, A. E., Brantford.
 Duncan, D. R., Owen Sound.
 Euler, W. D., Berlin.
 Elliot, J. G., Kingston.
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 Grindell, H., Acton West.
 Goodwin, Rev. James, Grimsby.
 Graham, C. M. R., London.
 Graham, Mrs. C. M., London.
 Homuth, Otto, Preston.
 Huston, H. E., Exeter.
 Hett, Dr. J. E., Berlin.
 Hawke, Dr. B. E., Toronto.
 Houston, Wm., Toronto.
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 Kelly, Mrs. C. W., Guelph.
 Kelly, Miss J. M., Guelph.
 Kress, Fred., Berlin.
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 Logie, Wm., Sarnia.
 Logie, Mrs. Wm., Sarnia.
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 Martin, Miss C. B., Toronto.
 McEwing, James, Drayton.
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 Perkins, M. F., Drayton.
 Perkins, Mrs. M. F., Drayton.
 Ready, J., St. Marys.
 Ross, Capt., West Toronto.
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 Staples, John W., Bobcaygeon.
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 Simpson, H., Toronto.
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 White, Mrs. J. A., Lindsay.
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Craig, Miss M., Lillian Massey School,
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122 Brunswick, Toronto.
Elliott, Miss, 341 McNab St., Hamil-
ton.
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ilton.

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Macpherson, Miss, 134 S. Wellington
St., Hamilton.
Miles, Miss, 535 E. Main St., Hamil-
ton.
Neville, Miss A., 497 Ontario St., To-
ronto.
Pease, Miss, 89 Ontario St., Stratford.
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Toronto.
Chapman, W. F., 434 Jarvis St.,
Toronto.
Cresley, Dr., 78 College St., Toronto.
Embree, L. E., 33 Beaty Ave., To-
ronto.
Goodechild, J. F., 33 Bloor St., E.,
Toronto.
Groves, W. E., 36 Albany Ave., To-
ronto.
Hastings, C. J. O., 258 Wellesley St.,
Toronto.
Hoppins, Miss E., 276 Wellington St.,
Kingston.

Huestis, Mrs. A., 10 Homewood Pl.,
Toronto.
Hunter, John, 8 O'Hara Ave., To-
ronto.
Johnson Miss Grace, Stratford.
Knight, A. P., Queen's University,
Kingston.
MacMurchy, Miss Helen, 133 Bloor St.
E., Toronto.
Millar, Miss H. W., Box 91, Guelph.
Nainby, Miss E., 11 Triller Ave., To-
ronto.
Oldwright, Wm., 154 Carlton St., To-
ronto.
Parker, Thomas, Toronto.
Scott, Wm., 576 Church St., Toronto.
Shaw, James, Hill St. Public School,
Owen Sound.

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Greer, V. K., Tweed.
Gurney, Mabel, Munster.
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Henderson, H. R., Ripley.
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Norton, Ada E., Carp.
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Scott, W. W., Cookstown.
Simpson, J. M., Peterborough.
Smith, F. P., Spencerville.
Smith, Isabel K., B.A., Shelburne.
Speers, J. A., M.A., Alliston.
Stewart, W. H., Acton.
Tupling, E. F., Highgate.

Commercial Specialists

On the Departmental examination for Commercial Specialists held in July, 1908, four of the candidates writing were from the Central Business College, Toronto. It was the first time any of them had written. All four were successful. Three out of the four took honours. Their names are as follows :—H. M. Hindson, M. L. McArthur, D. S. Morrison, C. B. Syer.

On the examinations of the Institute of Chartered Accountants held in May, 1908, 2 out of 6 candidates who were successful on the Final, 11 out of 15 on the Intermediate and 25 out of 41 on the Primary were students of our courses. All three scholarships were won by our men. The Final examination leads to the degree of C.A.

For sixteen years we have labored to give Toronto a business school that should be worthy of this city of schools. The results are before the reader.

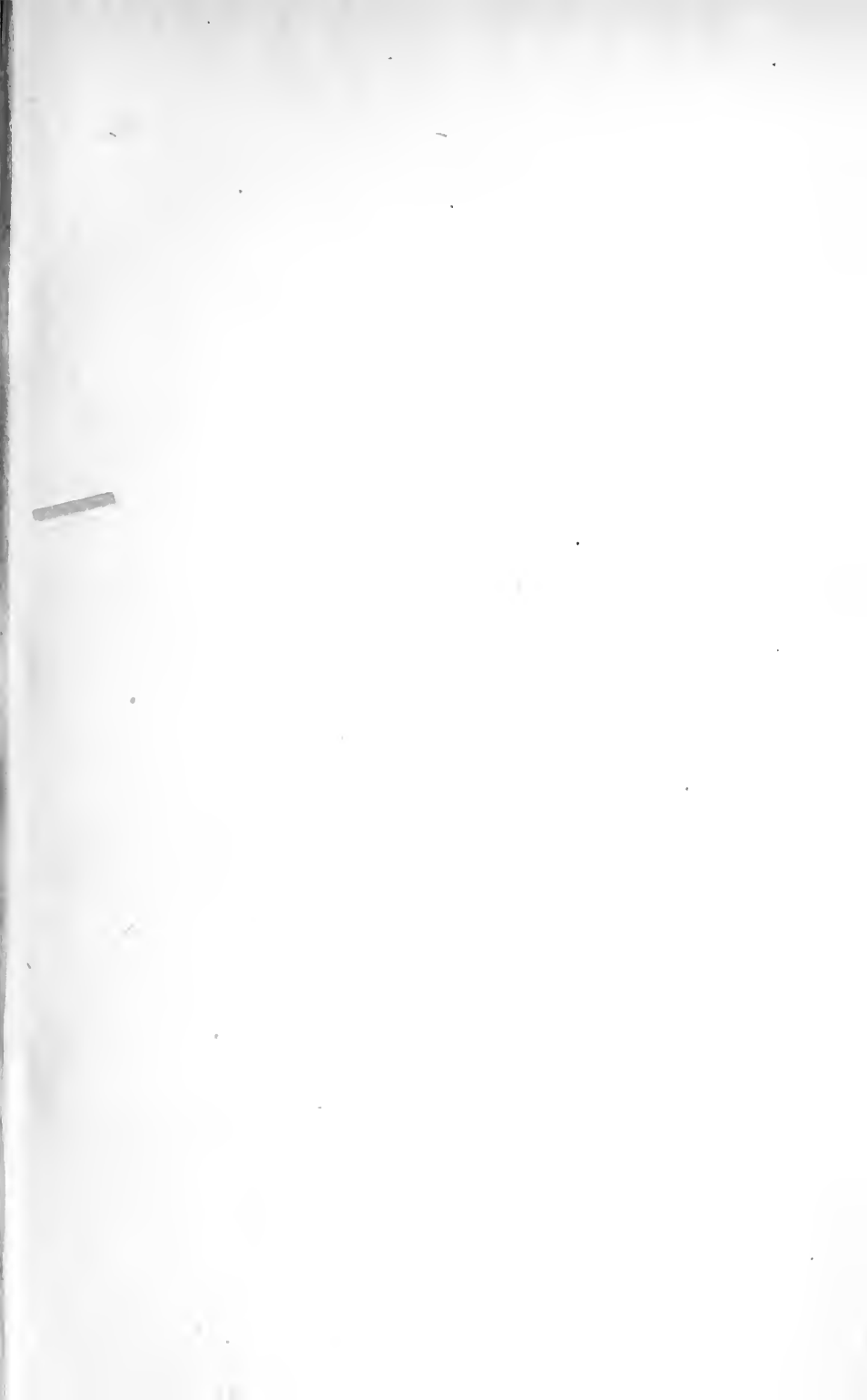
If you contemplate taking a course or have occasion to recommend a school to a young friend we are content to be remembered as the school that successfully prepares students for independent tests of the highest order. For that reason a person may feel just as proud of his connection with this school as may a student of any of our schools of law, medicine or theology.

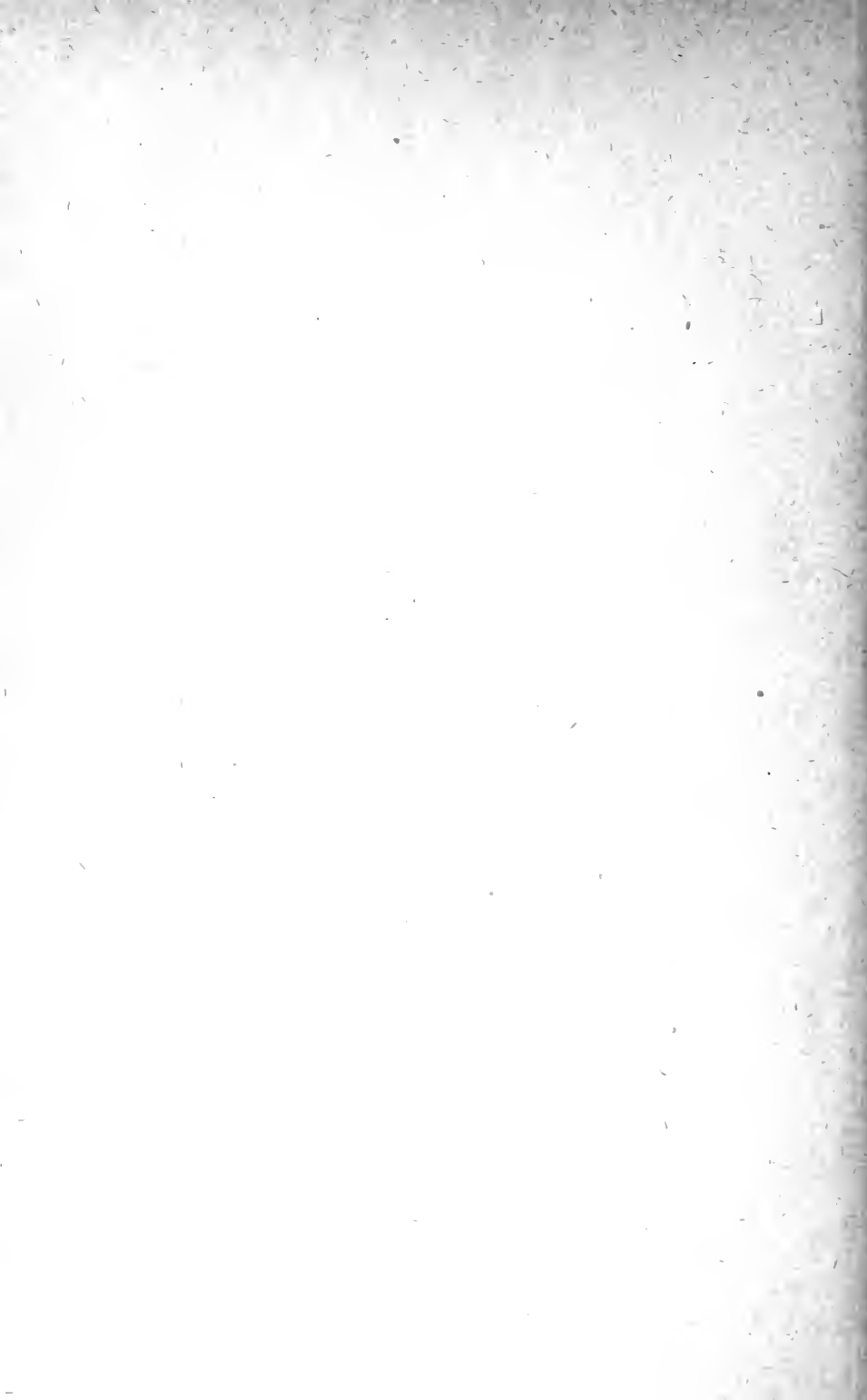
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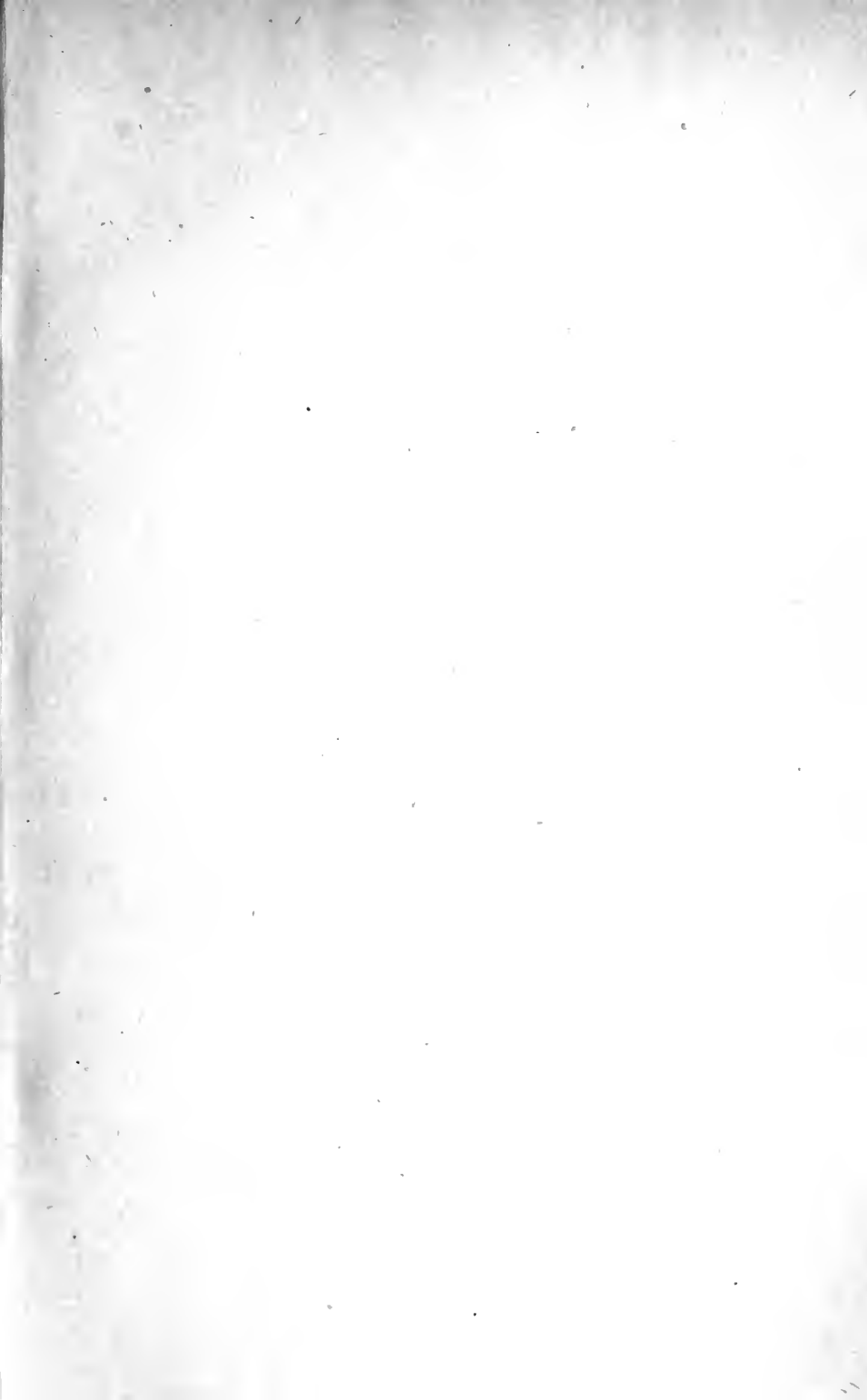
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